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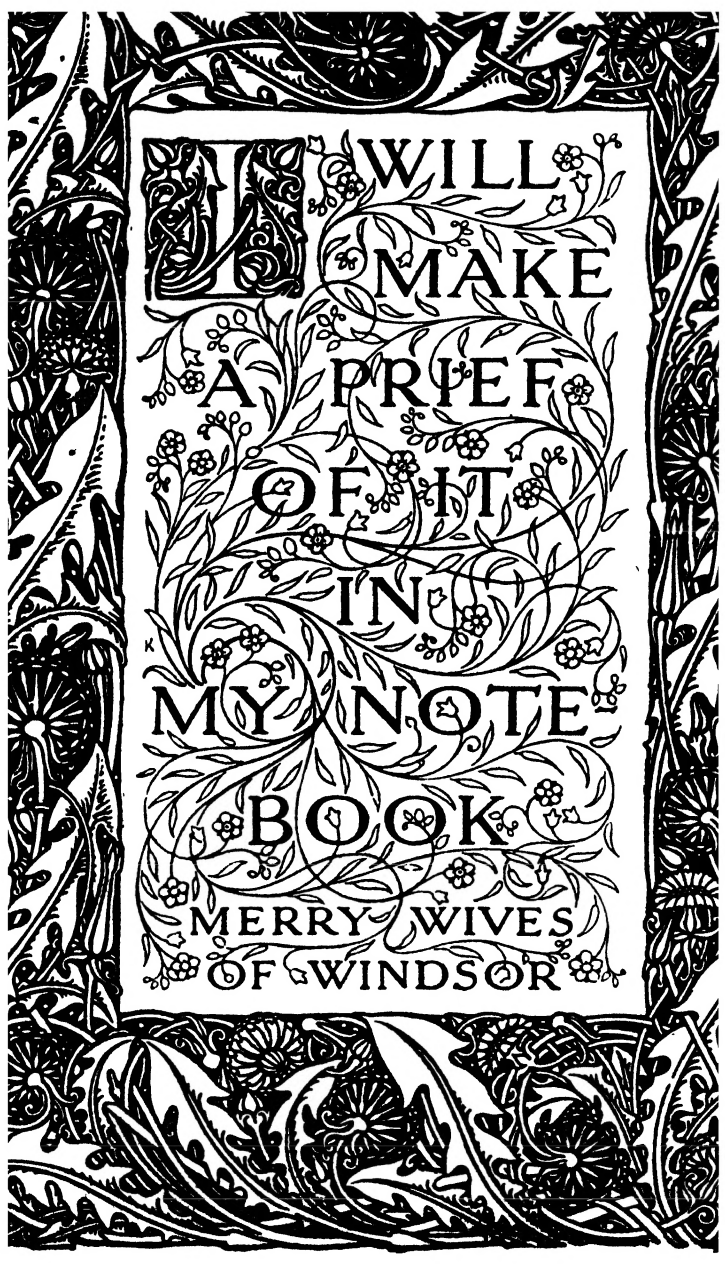
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I WILL
MAKE
A PREP
OF IT
IN
MY NOTE
BOOK
MERRY WIVES
OF WINDSOR

ATLAS OF ANCIENT & CLASSICAL GEOGRAPHY

EVERY
MAN
I WILL
GO
WITH
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BE THY
GUIDE



IN THY
MOST
NEED
TO GO
BY
THY
SIDE

LONDON & TORONTO
PUBLISHED BY J. M. DENT
& SONS LTD & IN NEW YORK
BY E. P. DUTTON & CO

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INTRODUCTION

DR. BUTLER'S atlas, which for a time filled the place in the series taken by this volume, has only been laid aside in response to a demand for better maps, clearer in detail. The new maps are designed to lighten the search for the place-names and the landmarks they contain by a freer spacing and lettering of the towns, fortresses, harbours, rivers and so forth, likely to be needed by readers of the classical writers and the histories of Greece and Rome. The pages too have been so arranged as to save the unfolding and refolding of each chart as it is used, while the range of subjects has been notably extended in order to show the development of the old science of geography, and to illustrate the wars and changes of frontier and rise and fall of states and empires. We begin with the voyage of the Argonauts, and the world of Homer, representing a Europe on whose outer western rim these islands lay in Cimmerian darkness, with no western hemisphere of the future Americas beyond them. The eastern survey of Herodotus, and the Eratosthenes' map which ranges from Ultima Thule in the far north to Arabia Deserta and the Indian limits, carry the record to the point where the live contact between geography and ancient history occurs. It is seen in the voyage of Nearchus who sailed as far south-east as the mouth of the Indus in 325 B.C.; and Strabo and Ptolemy bring us to the partition of the old world at the beginning of the Christian era. It was in the library of Alexandria that Eratosthenes wrote the work which began the real mapping out of the globe with the lines of latitude and longitude.

Turning to the more special maps we realise in that

of Greece, as Professor Bury has shown us, how vitally its physical features affected its history and its place among the nations. We see how its ridged headland broken by a great sea rift, and how the heights of Olympus, Ossa and Pelion, and those of Eubœa and the island chain beyond; and how again Epirus and the Peloponnesus gave the land its mountain barriers. But finally it was the sea decided the fate of the people; they were fairly driven to seek their outlet and their defence in its waters; and the decisive factor was the Ægean, which became in a sense the fluid axis of Greek conquest, commerce and colonial life. In the same way, it is the map that makes us aware of the effect of position in the case of an old rival to Rome like Carthage. The line-maps of the cities include Syracuse, Thebes, Babylon, Jerusalem, Tyre; nor is Pompeii, nor Troy, omitted; and among the battle-fields are Marathon and Salamis, Issus and Thermopylæ.

From the pages of Grote and of Gibbon, from Herodotus, Livy, and Cæsar, from Tacitus and from the *Cyropædia*, we draw the historic detail that converts the map into a living document. Gibbon's account of the modifying of Italy under the Roman rule is a case in point. Before the Roman came, he wrote, "the country which is now called Lombardy was not considered as a part of Italy. It had been occupied by a powerful colony of Gauls, who, settling themselves along the banks of the Po, from Piedmont to Romagna, carried their arms and diffused their name from the Alps to the Apennine. The Ligurians dwelt on the rocky coast, which now forms the republic of Genoa. Venice was yet unborn; but the territories of that state, which lie to the east of the Adige, were inhabited by the Venetians. The middle part of the peninsula, that now composes the duchy of Tuscany and the ecclesiastical state, was the ancient seat of the Etruscans and Umbrians; to the former of whom Italy was indebted for the first rudiments of a civilised life. The Tiber rolled at the foot of the

seven hills of Rome, and the country of the Sabines, the Latins, and the Volsci, from that river to the frontiers of Naples, was the theatre of her infant victories. On that celebrated ground the first consuls deserved triumphs, their successors adorned villas, and *their* posterity have erected convents. Capua and Campania possessed the immediate territory of Naples; the rest of the kingdom was inhabited by many warlike nations, the Marsi, the Samnites, the Apulians, and the Lucanians; and the sea-coasts had been covered by the flourishing colonies of the Greeks. We may remark, that when Augustus divided Italy into eleven regions, the little province of Istria was annexed to that seat of Roman sovereignty."

We need but add that in the preparation of this Classical Atlas and aid to ancient history, the expert services of Dr. Bartholomew have been of the greatest assistance, as in the modern atlases in Everyman's Library.

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THE ATLAS
OF
ANCIENT AND CLASSICAL
GEOGRAPHY

according to

THE TRADITIONS OF THE ANCIENTS

Track of the Argo to Colchus

Return Voyage according to Orpheus

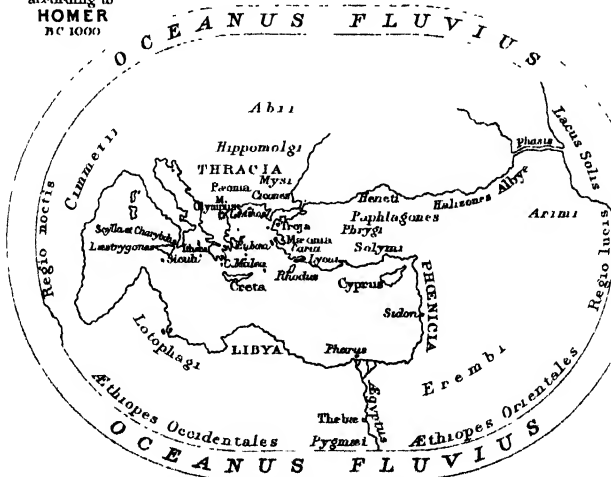
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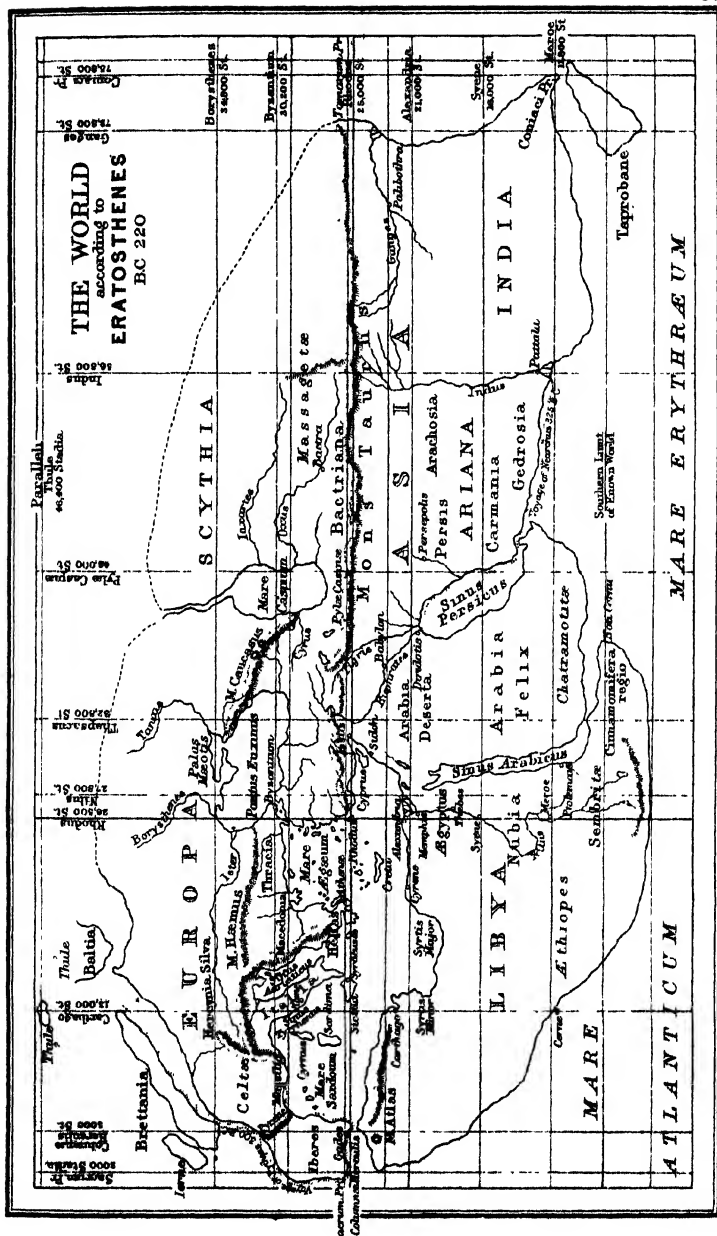
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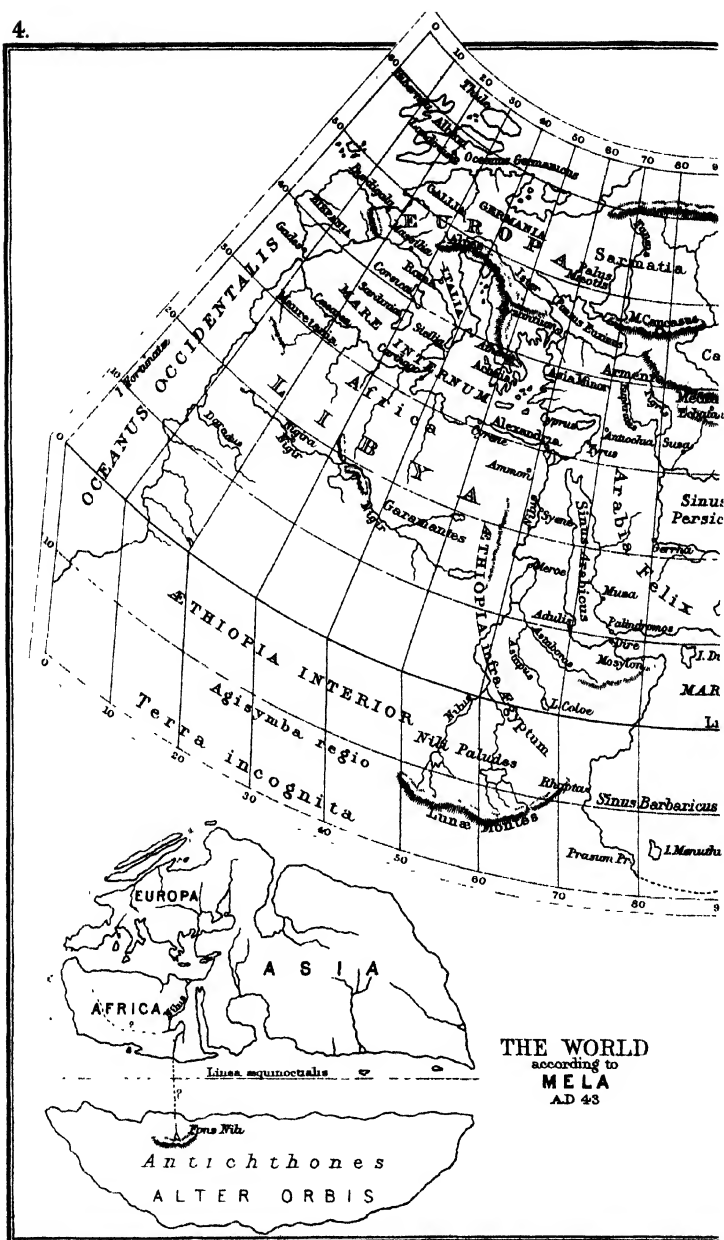


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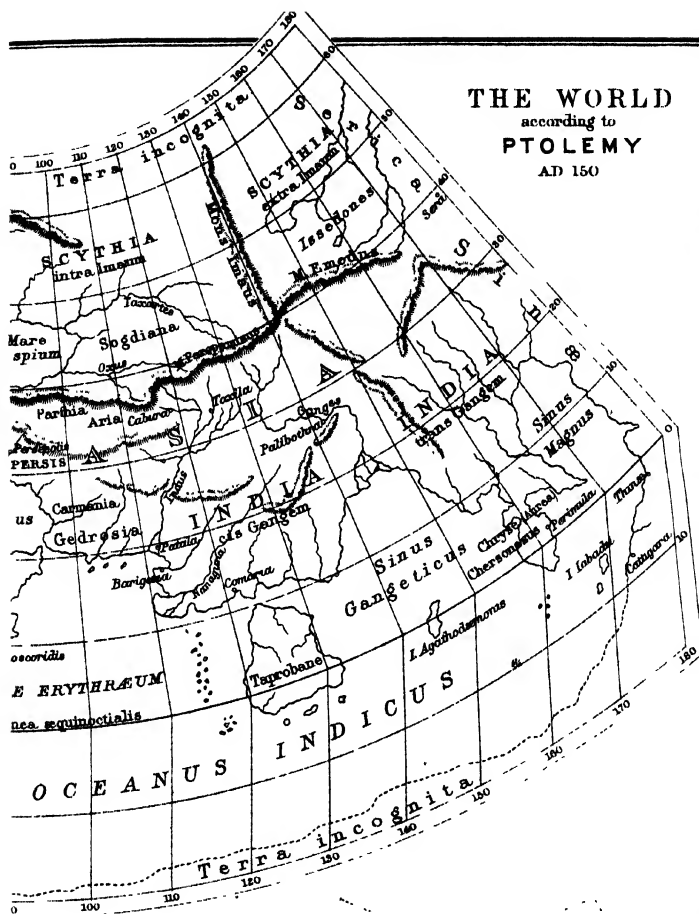
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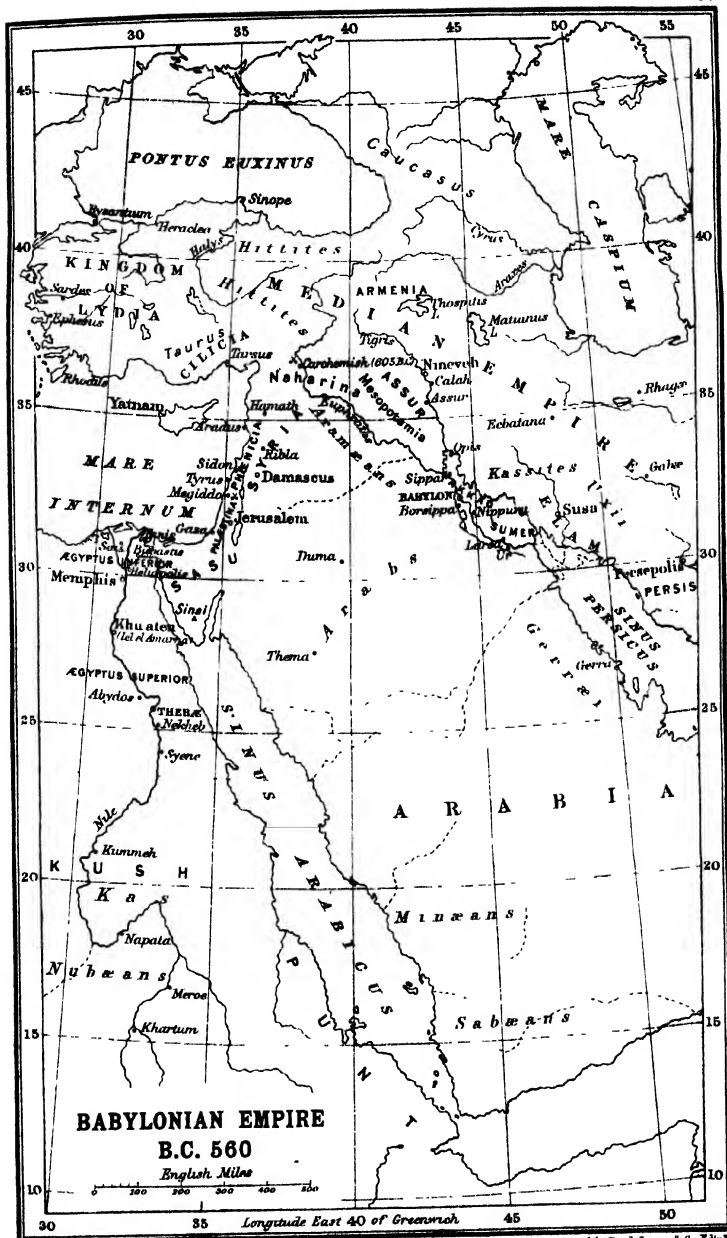


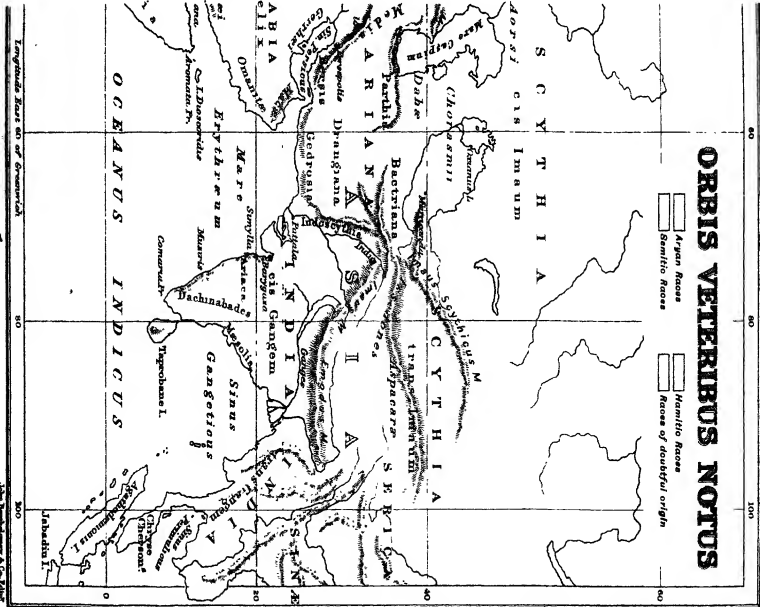
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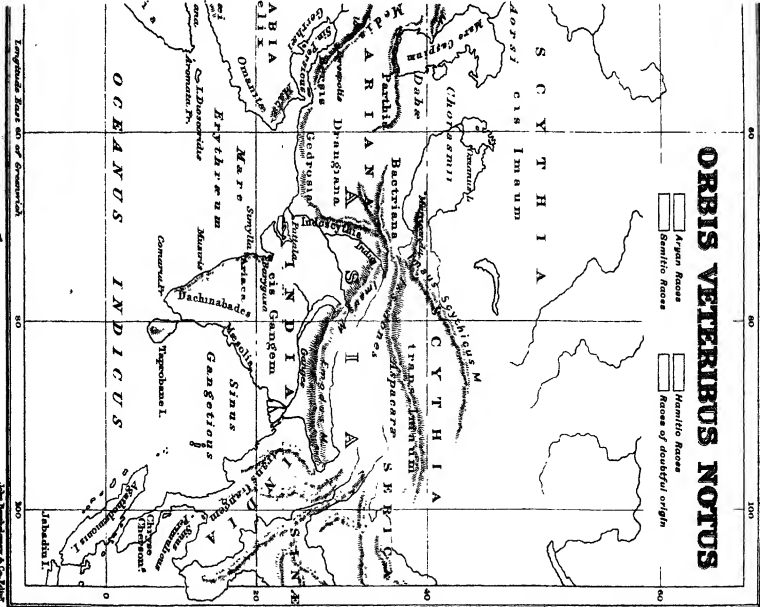
THE WORLD
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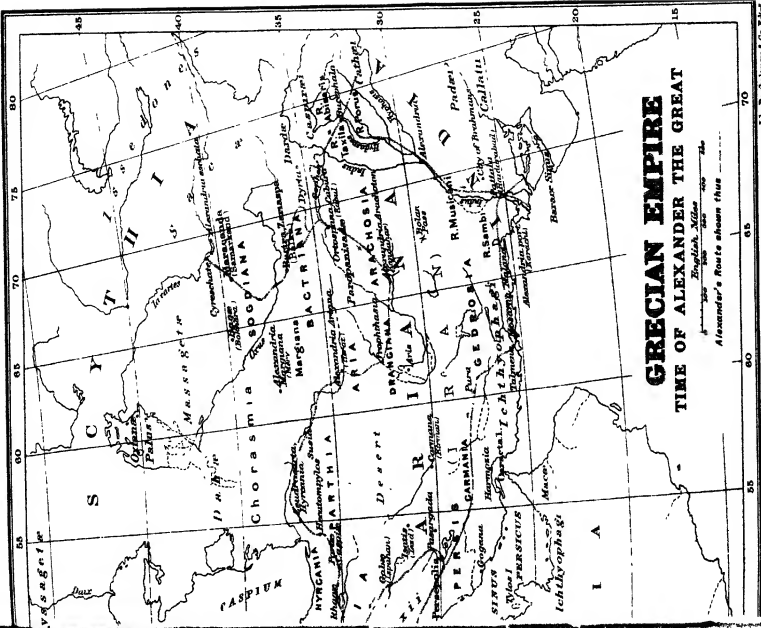
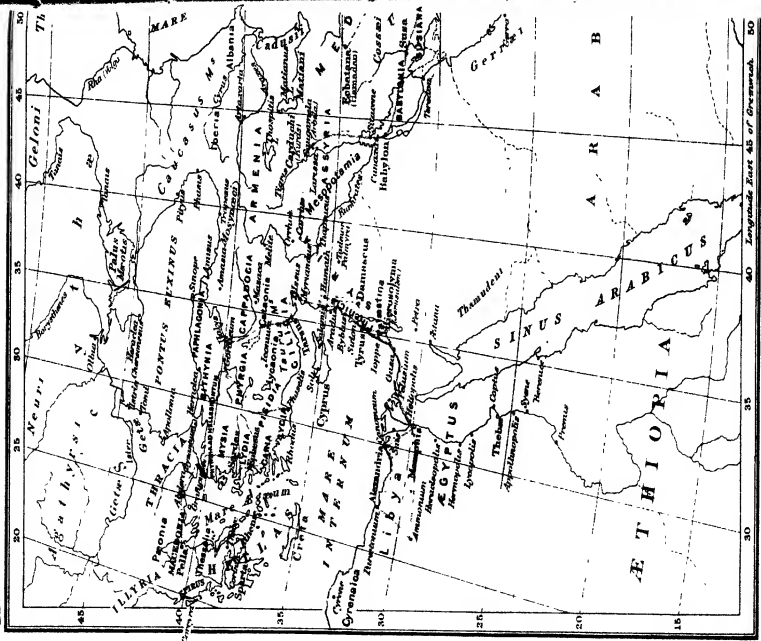


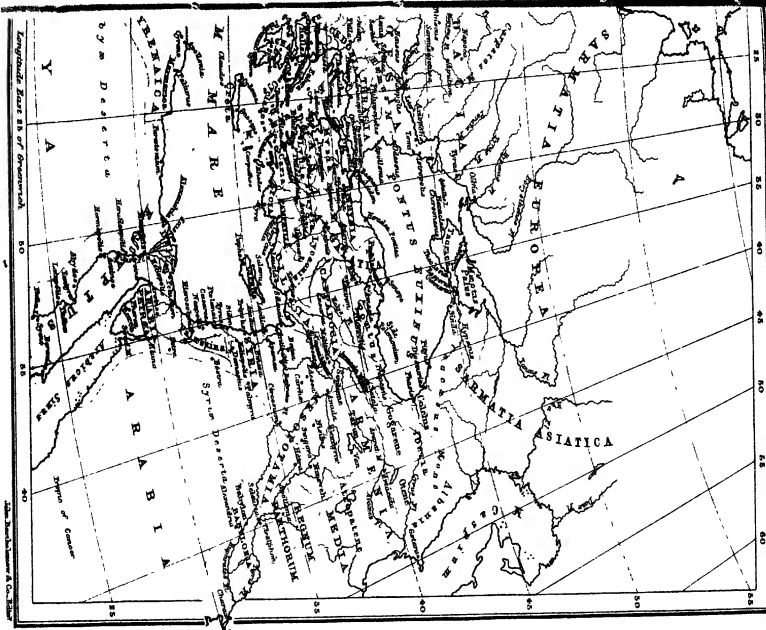
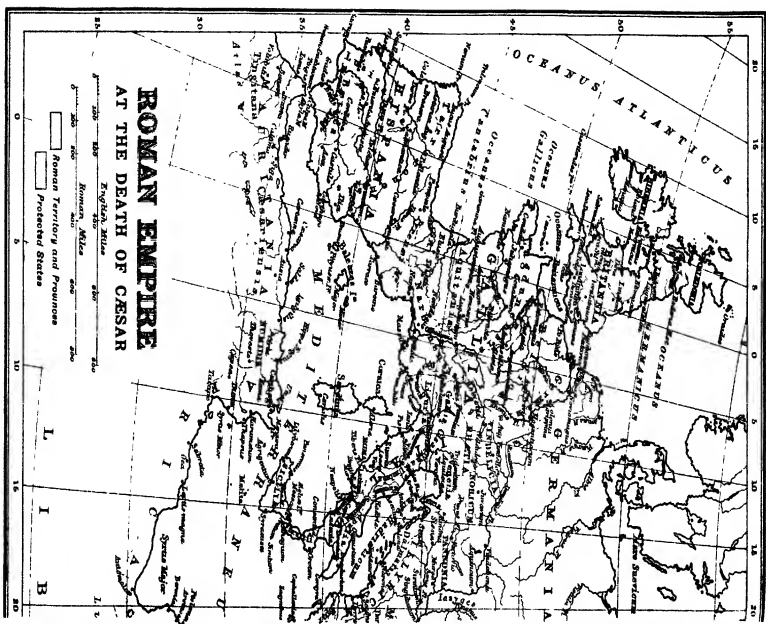


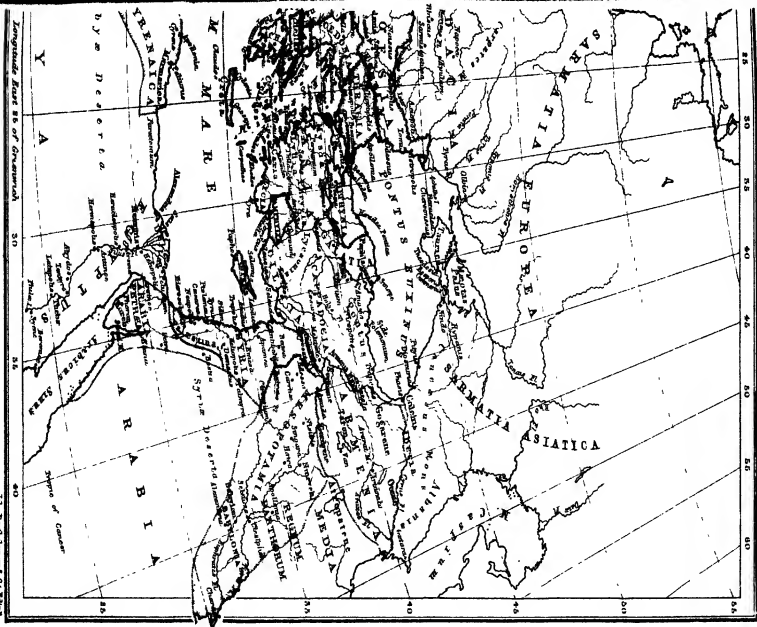
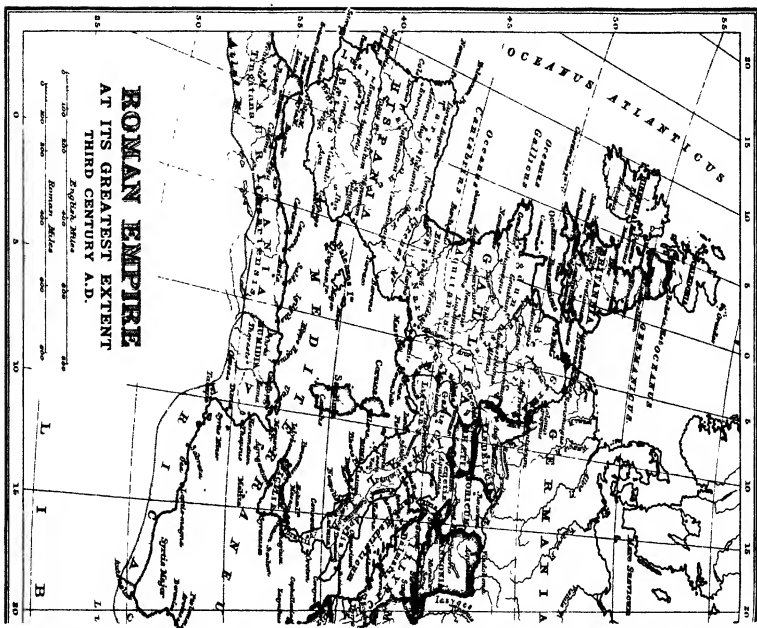
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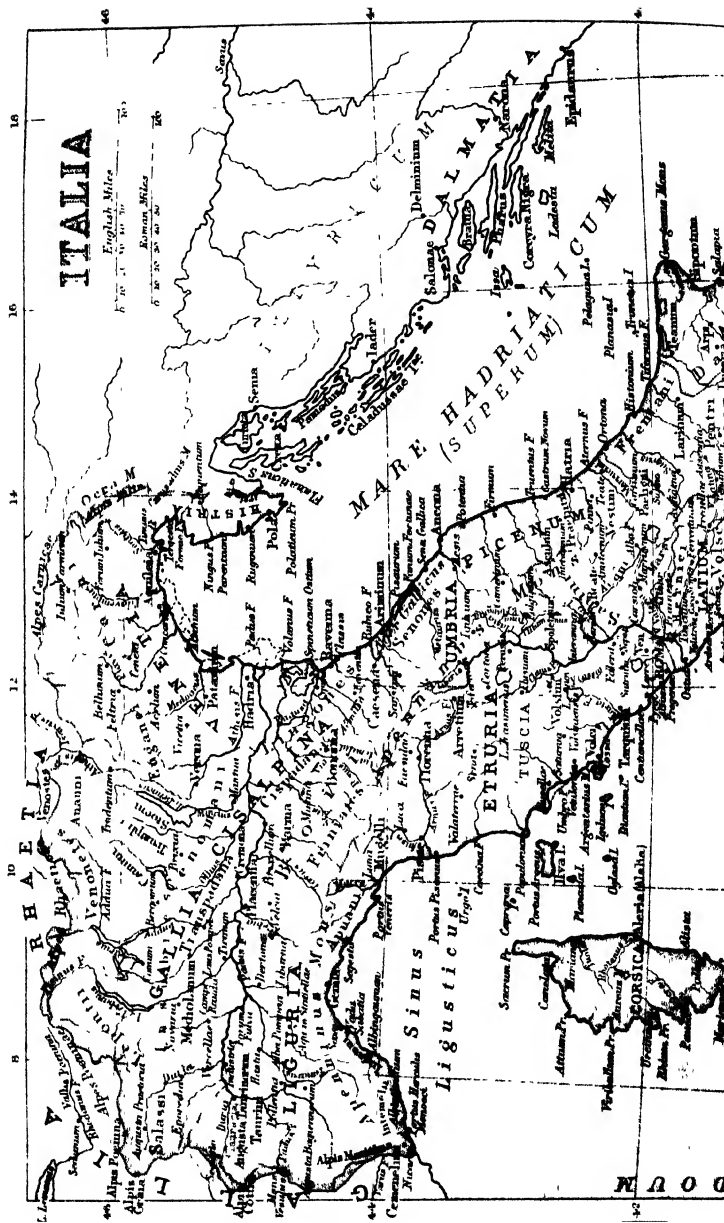


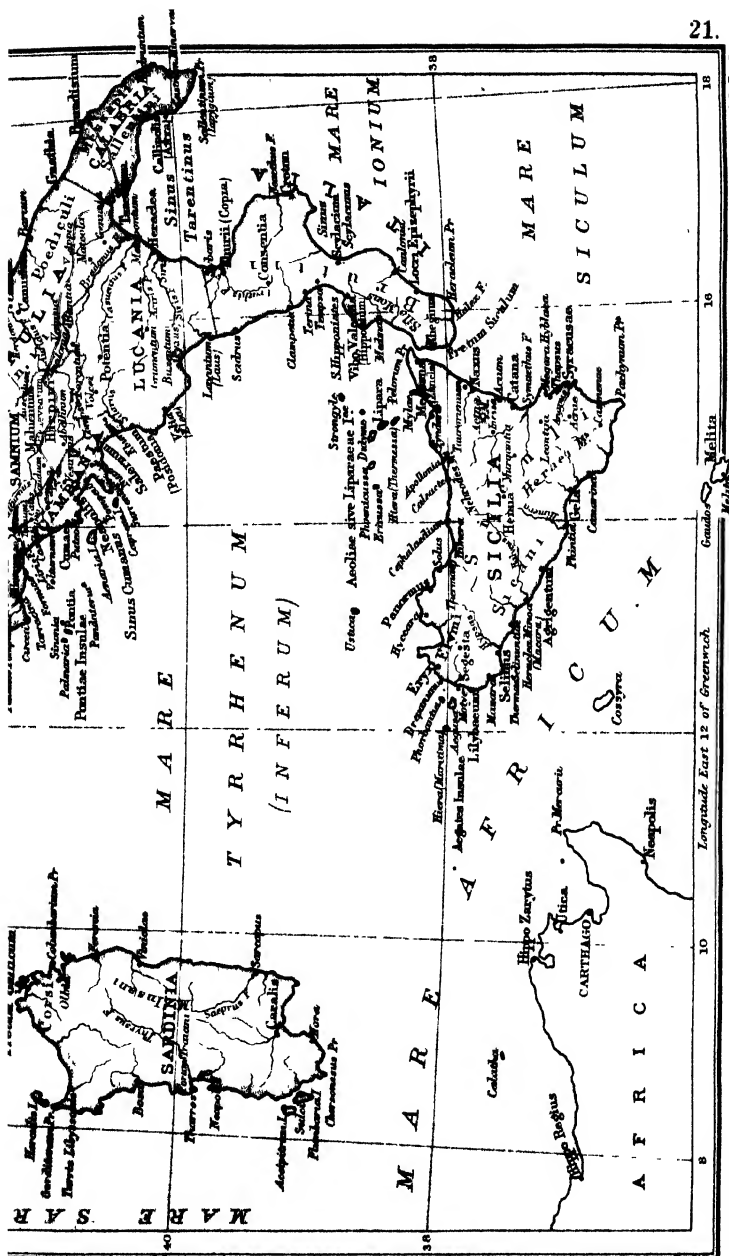


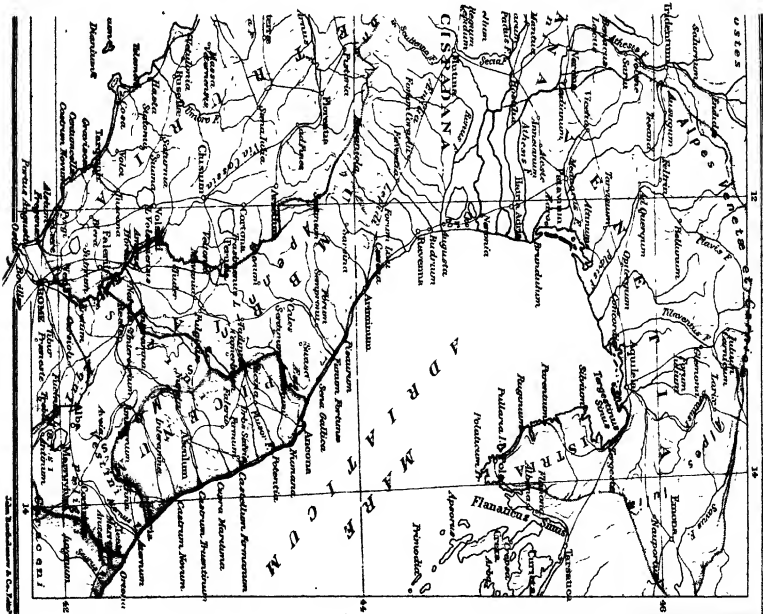
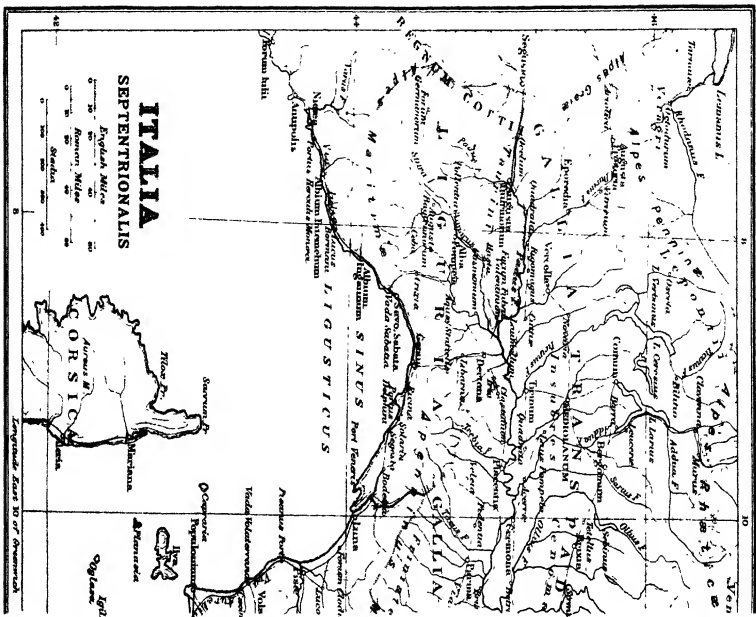


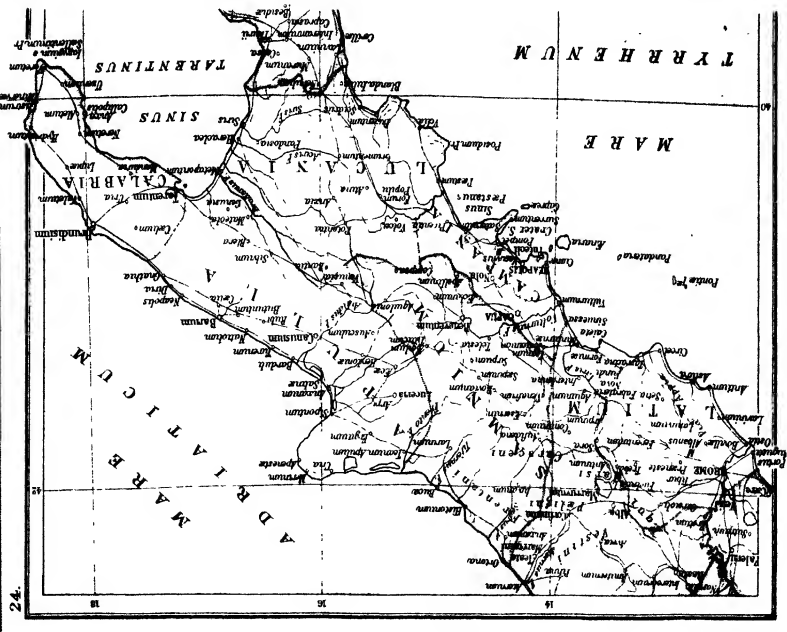
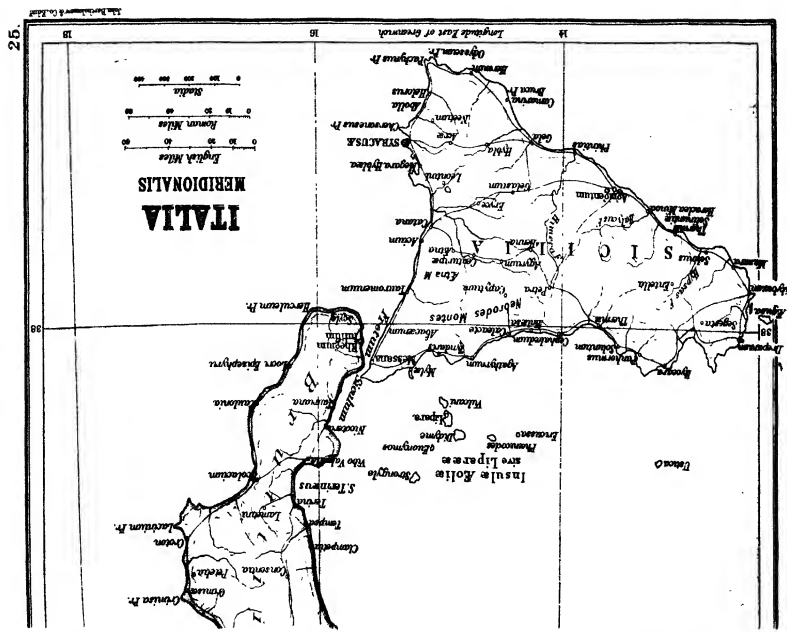


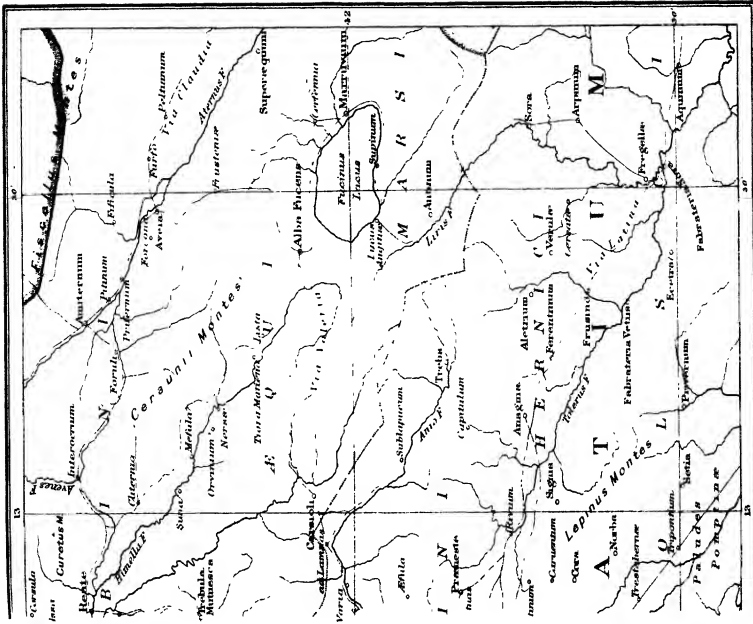
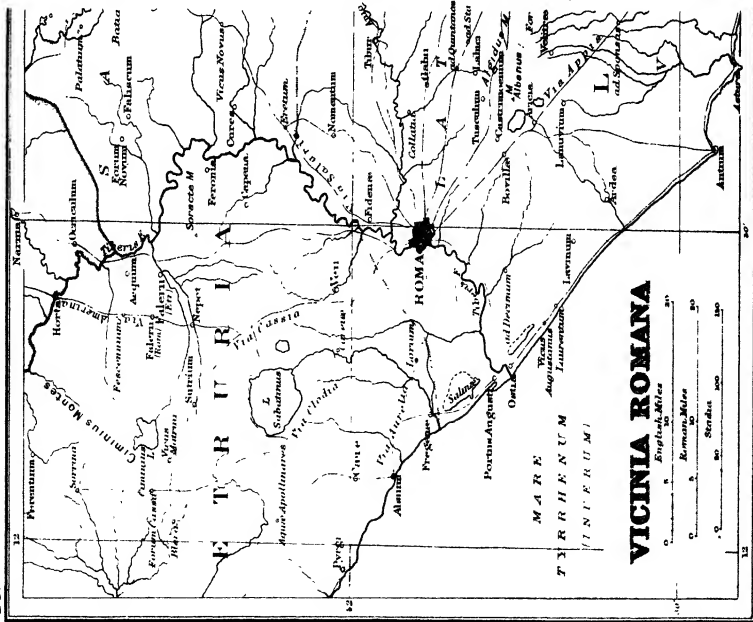






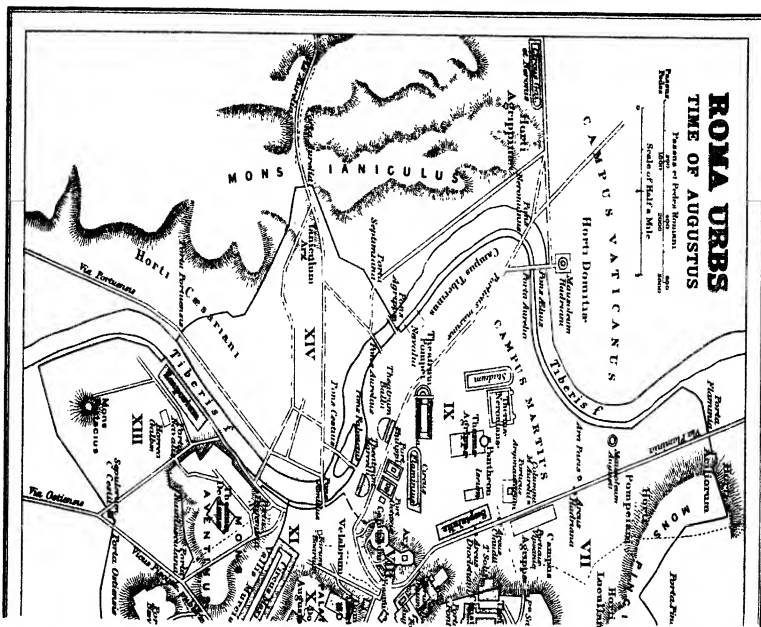






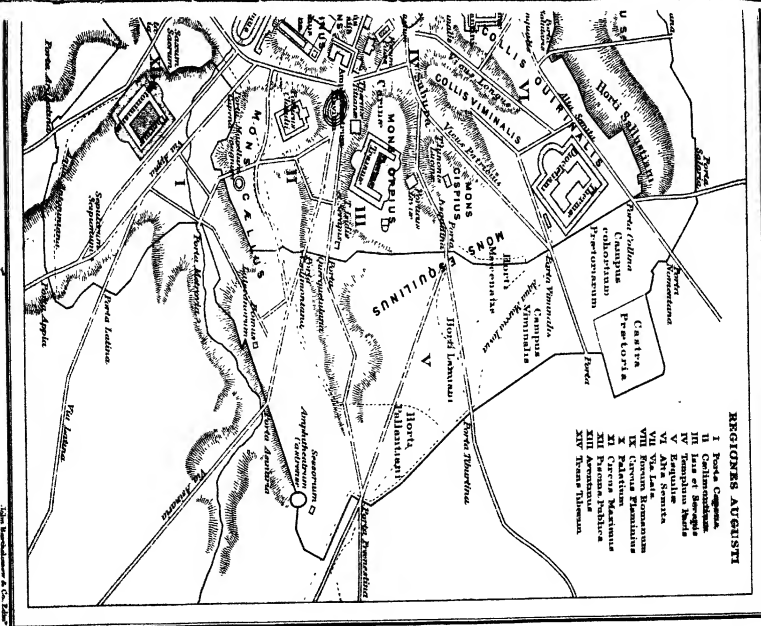
ROMA URBS TIME OF AUGUSTUS

Passages and Public Buildings
 Roman Miles
 Scale of Half a Mile



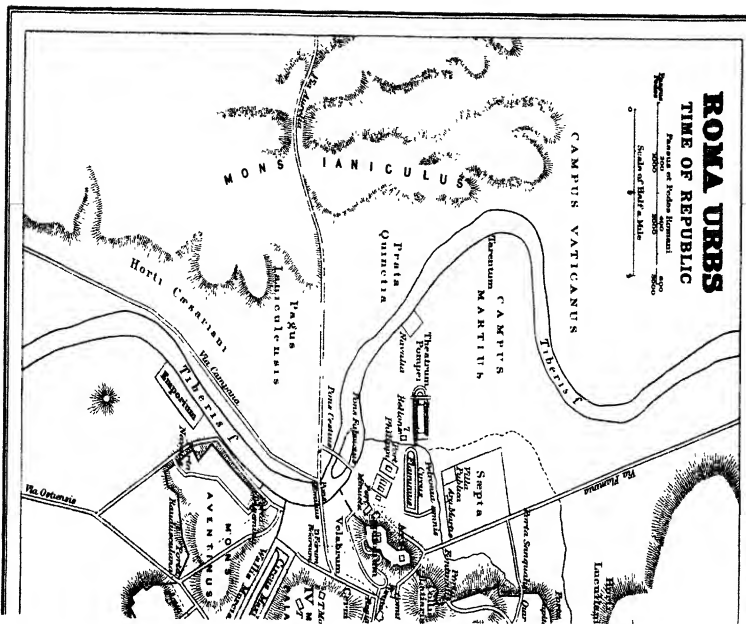
REGIONES AUGUSTI

- I. Portus Caeliensis
- II. Caelianensis
- III. Iulae et Salariae
- IV. Templum Martis
- V. Aelia Novensia
- VI. Aelia Novensia
- VII. Viminalis
- VIII. Forum Romanum
- IX. Palatinus
- X. Caelianensis
- XI. Caelianensis
- XII. Forum Traianum
- XIII. Forum Traianum
- XIV. Forum Traianum



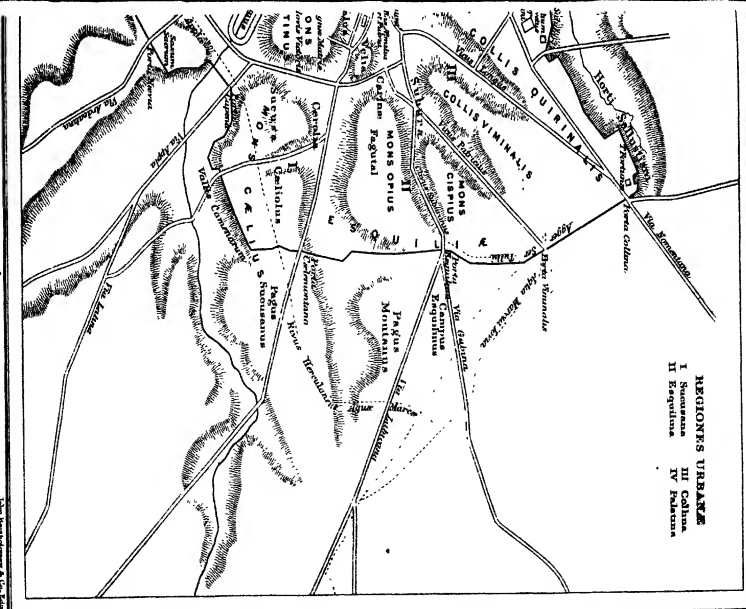
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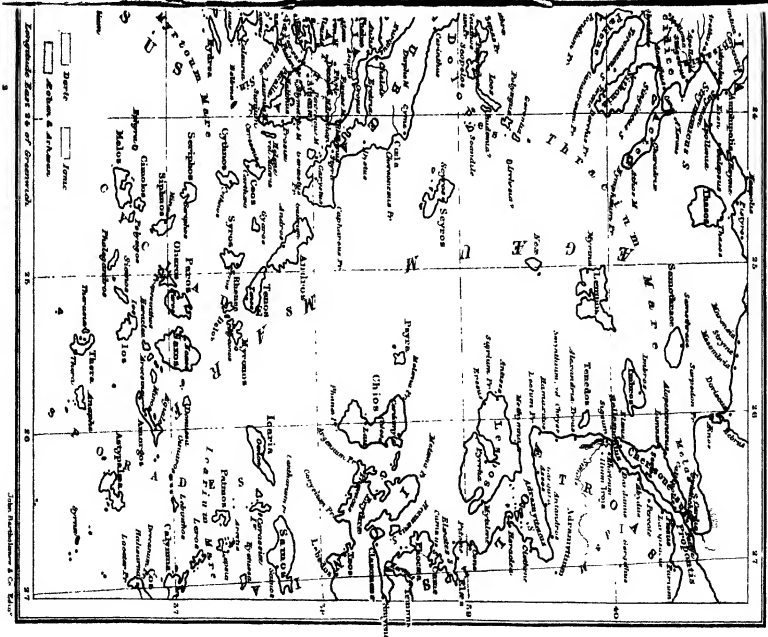
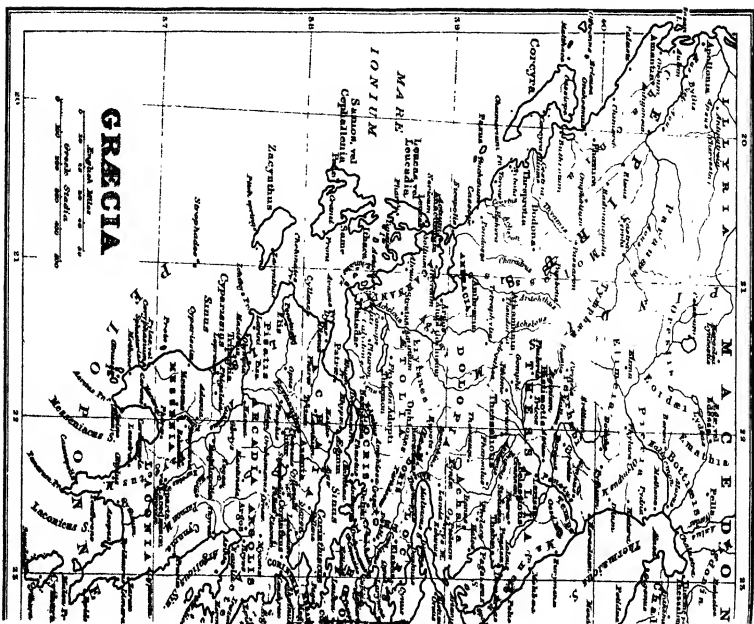
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Scale of Half a Mile

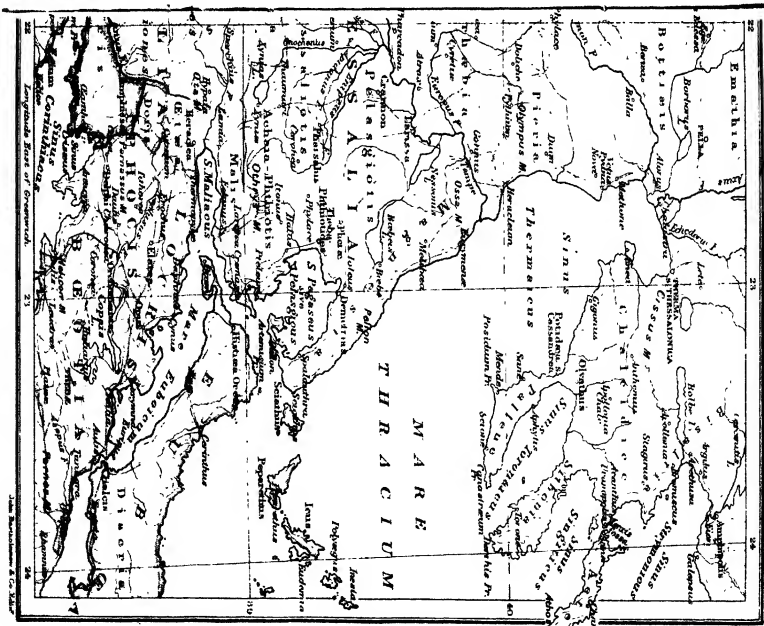
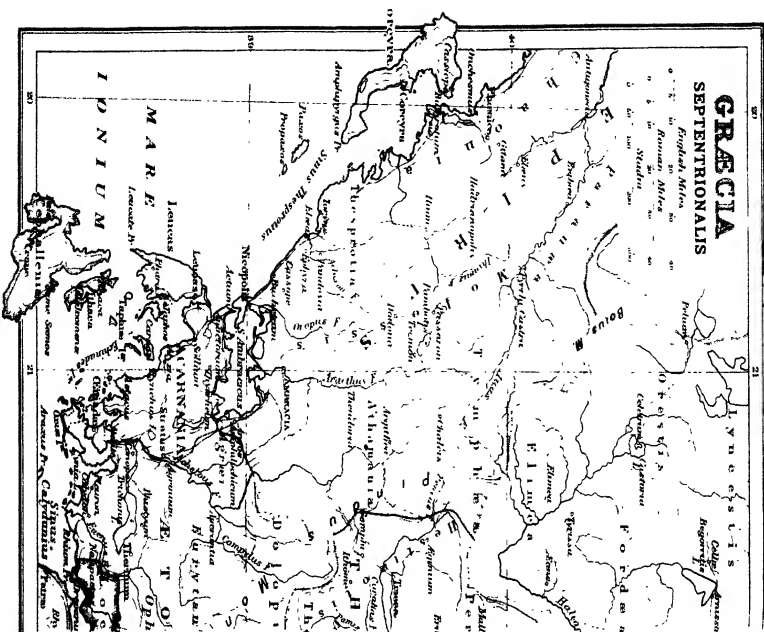


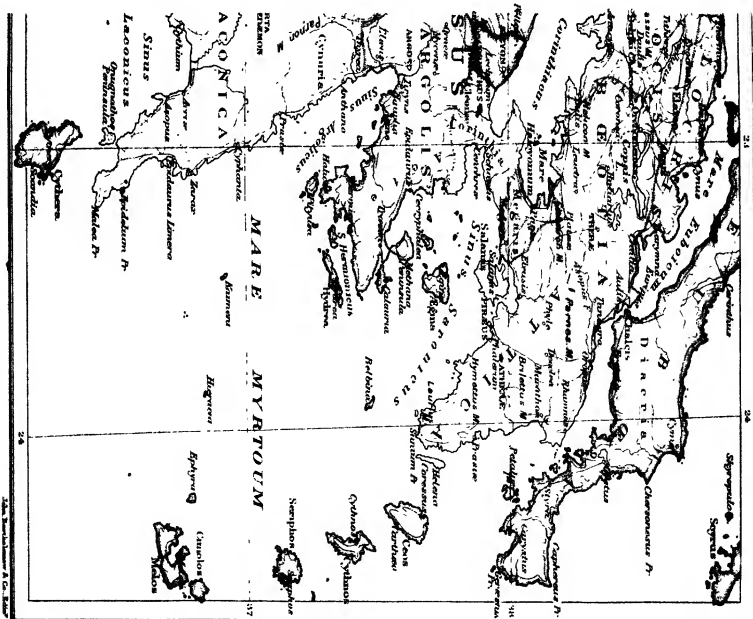
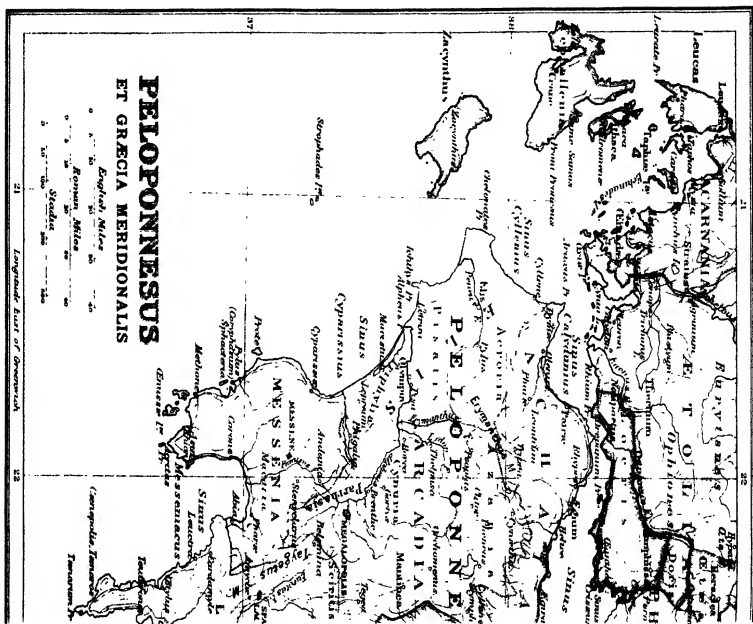
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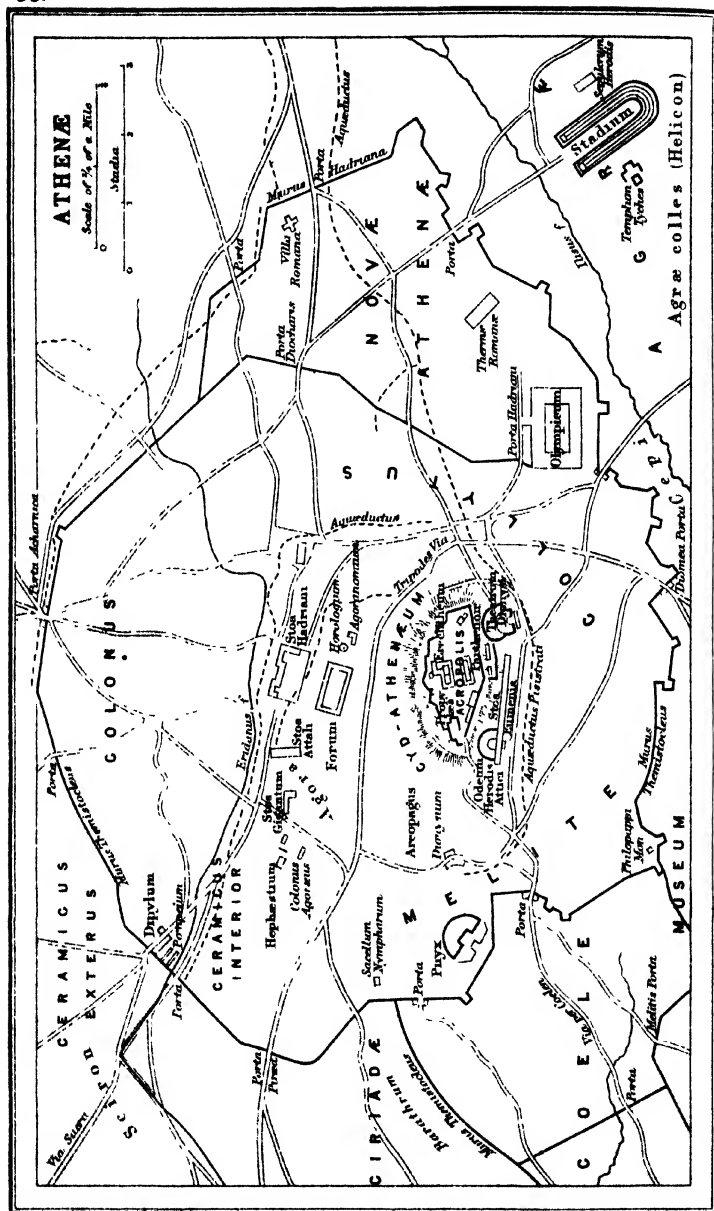
I Subura
II Esquilina
III Colina
IV Palatina

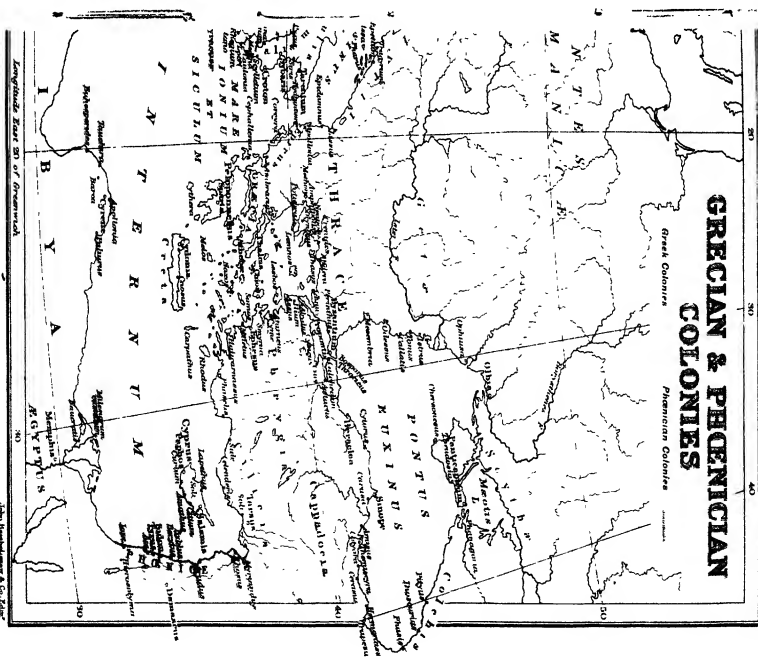
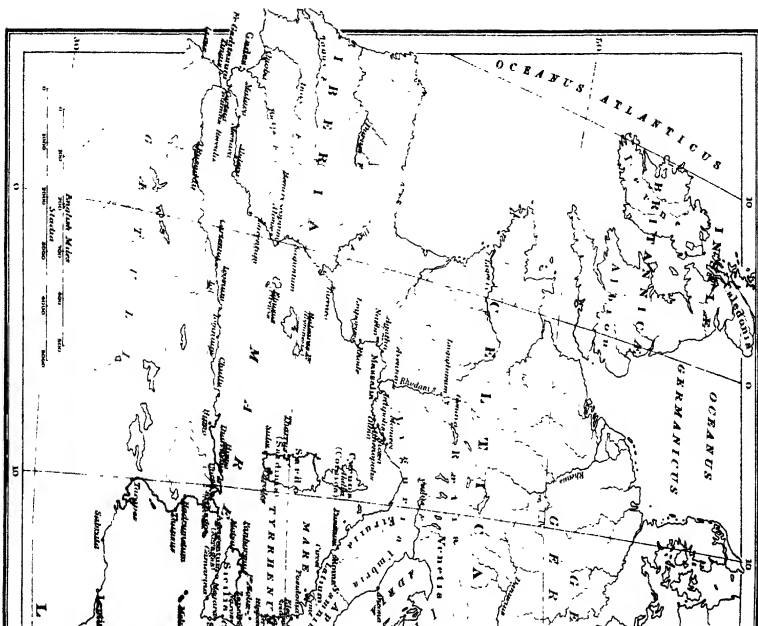




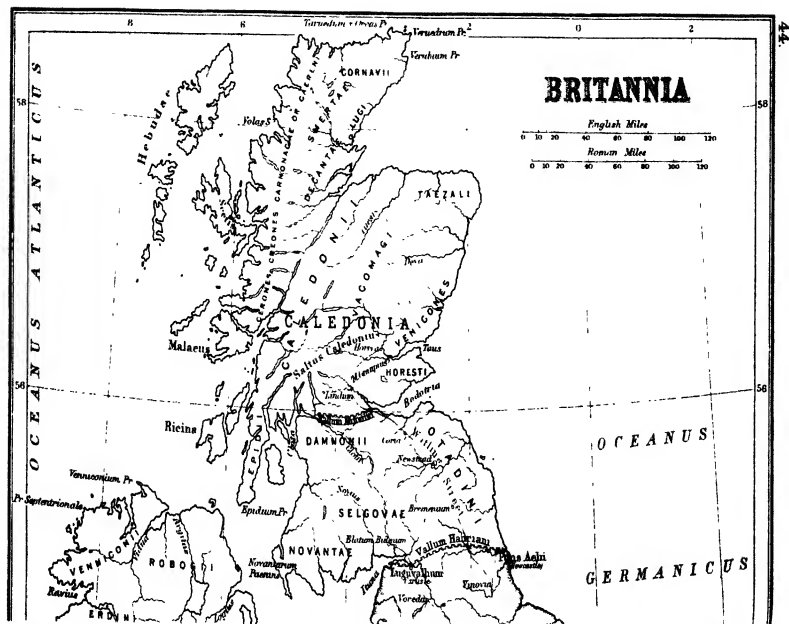


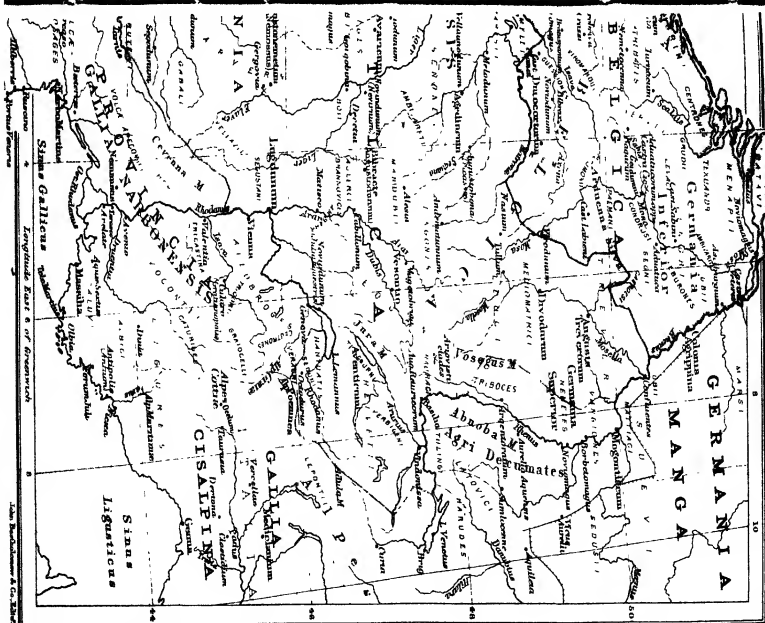
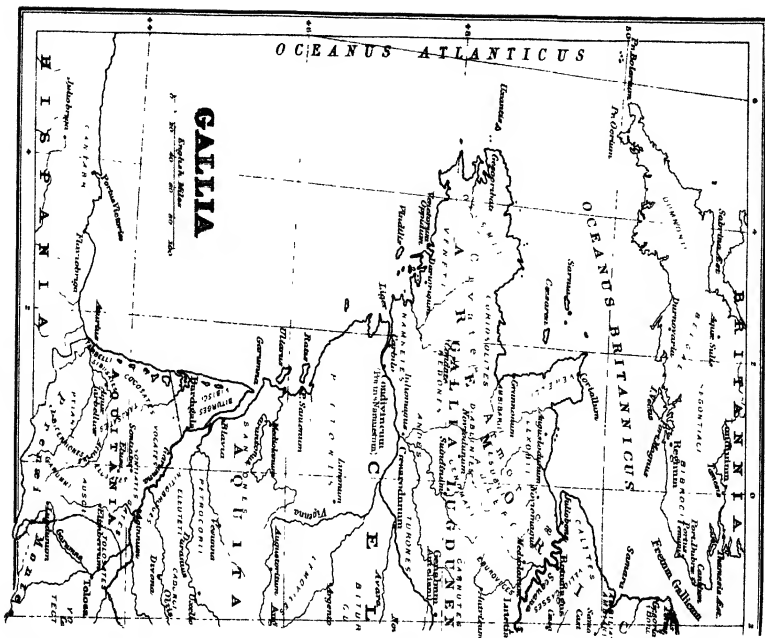


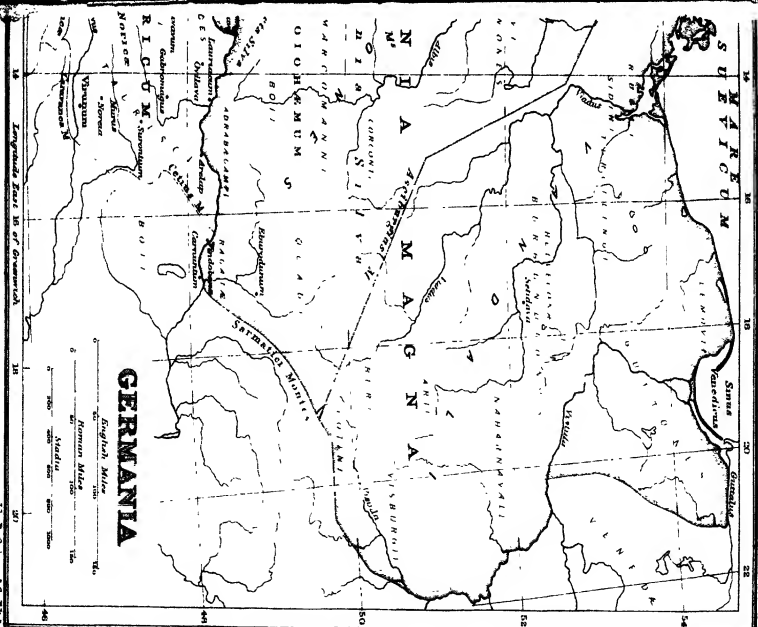
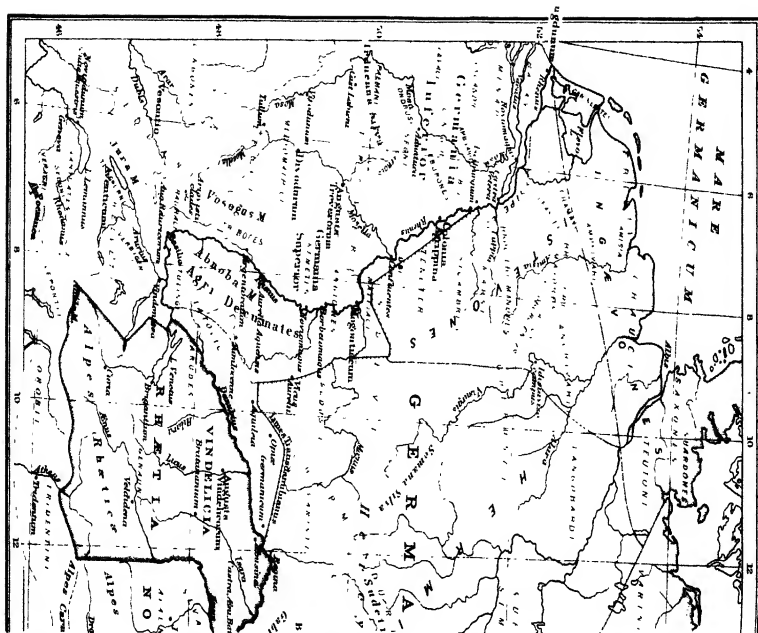


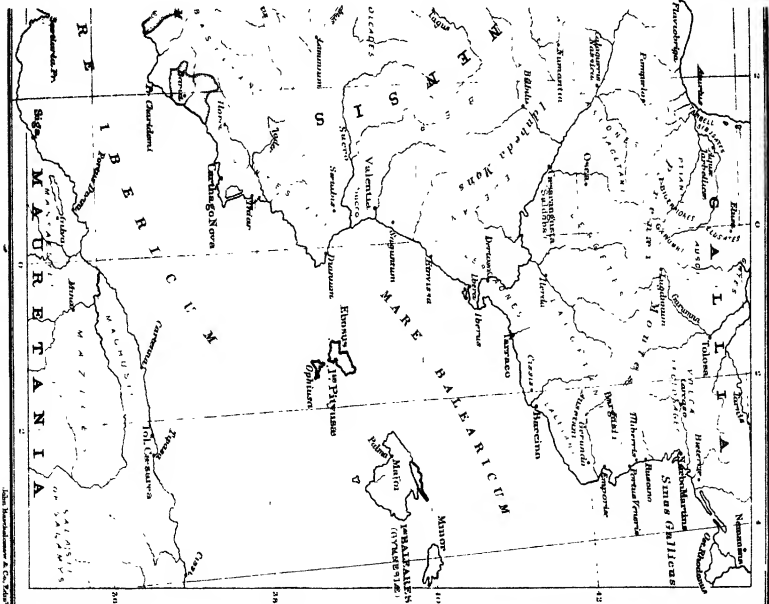




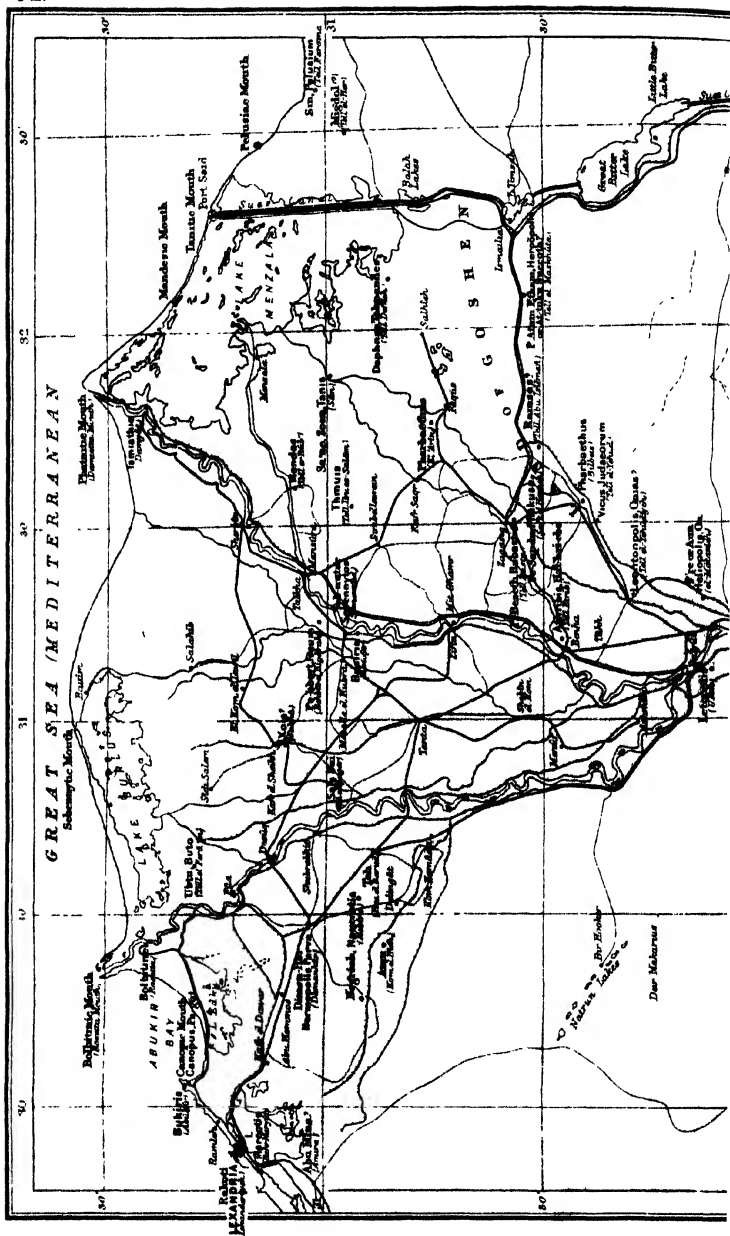


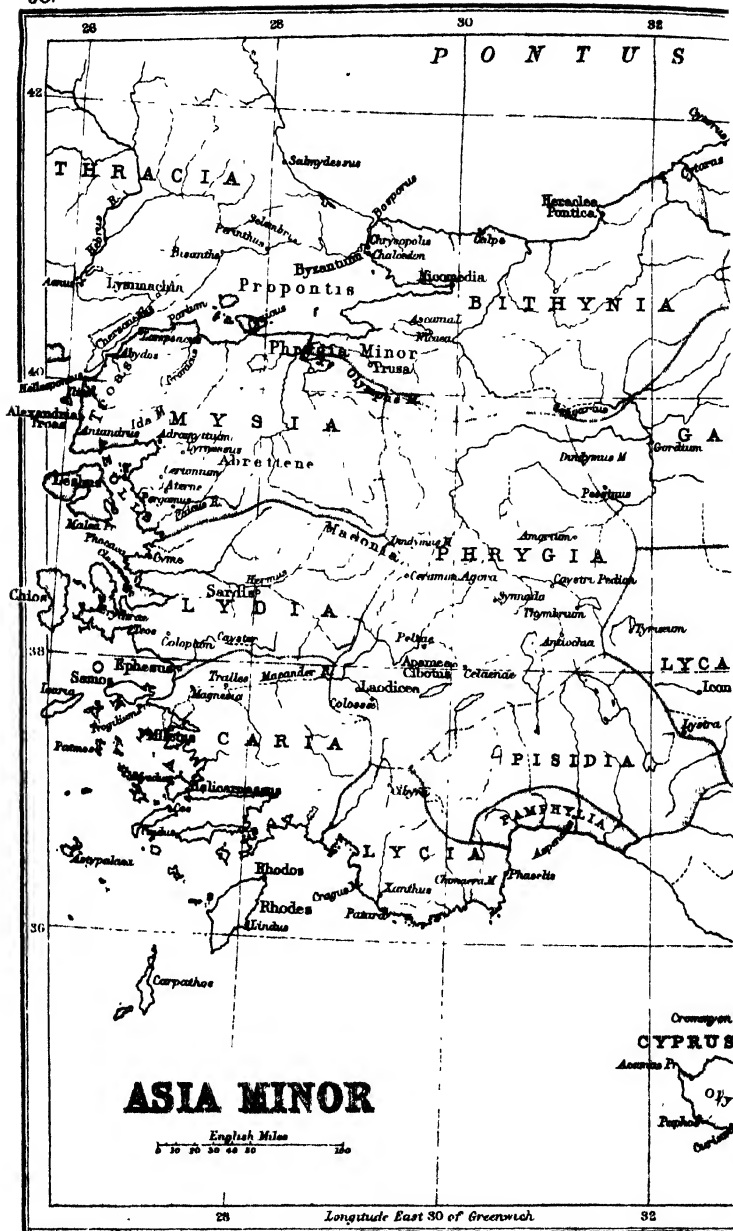


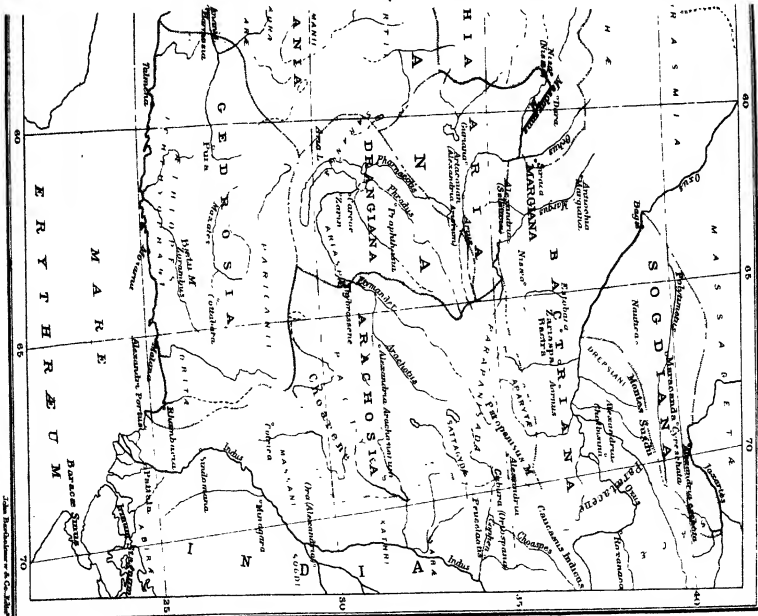
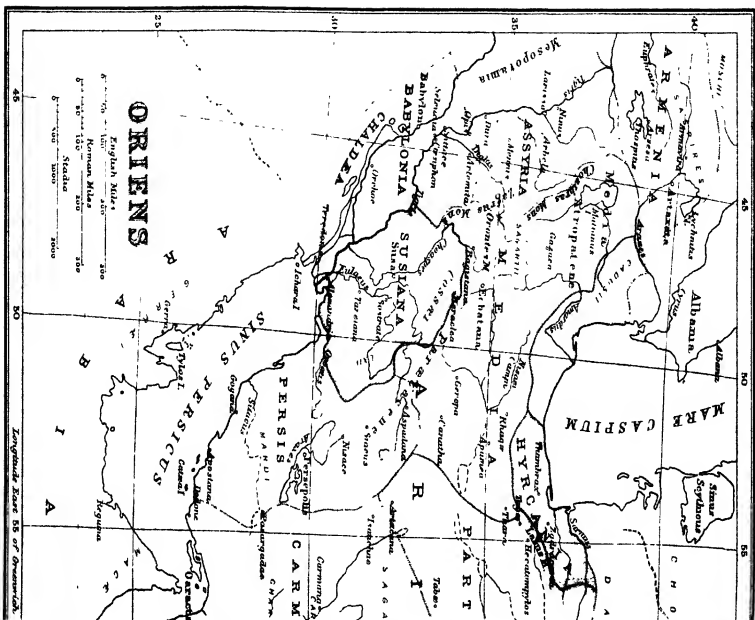


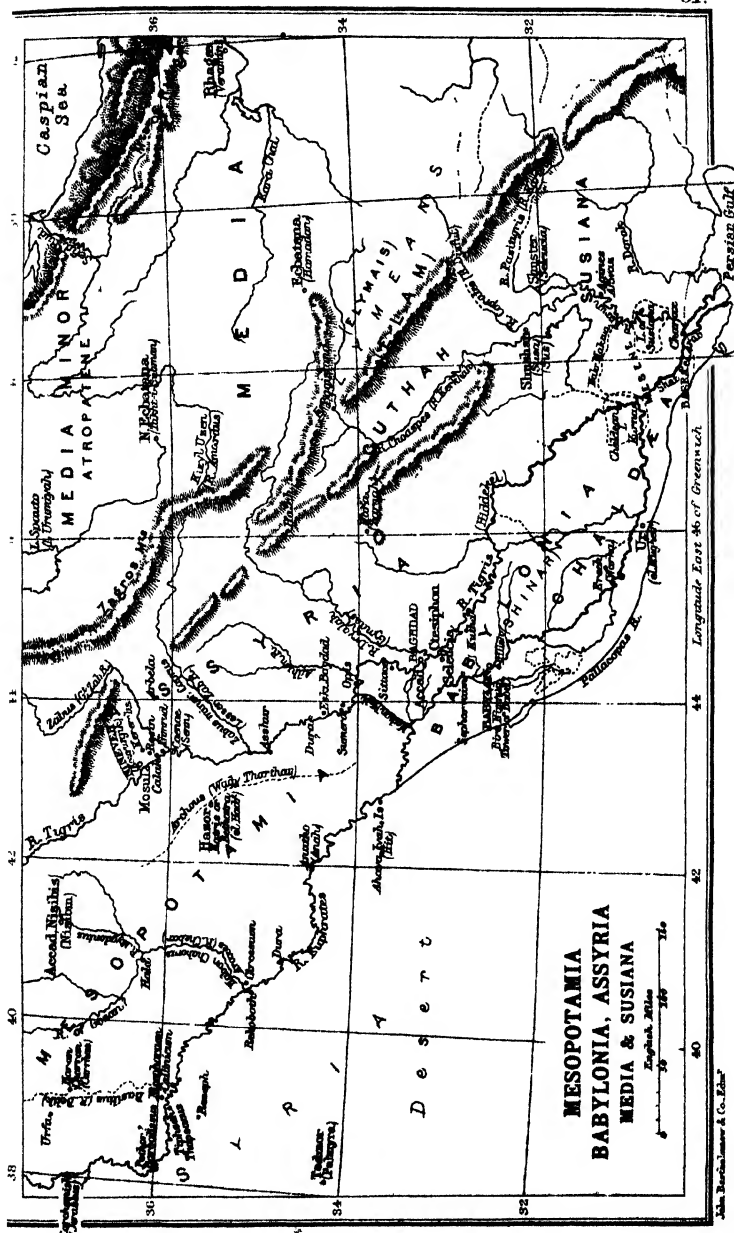


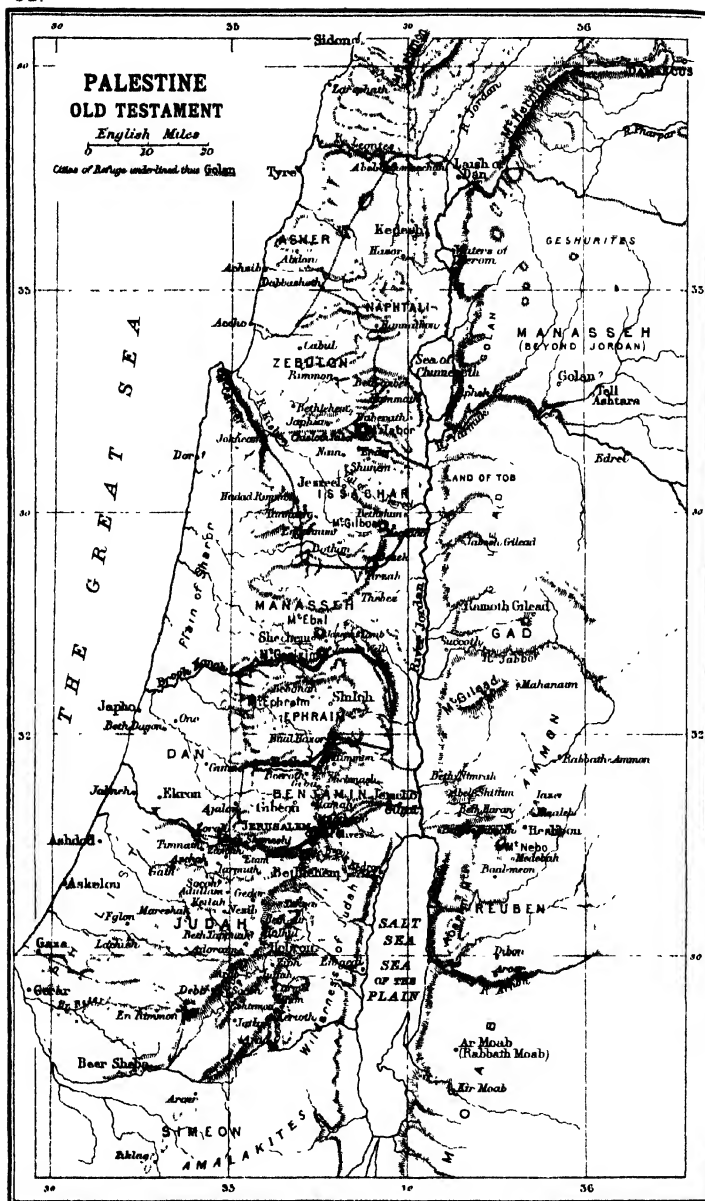






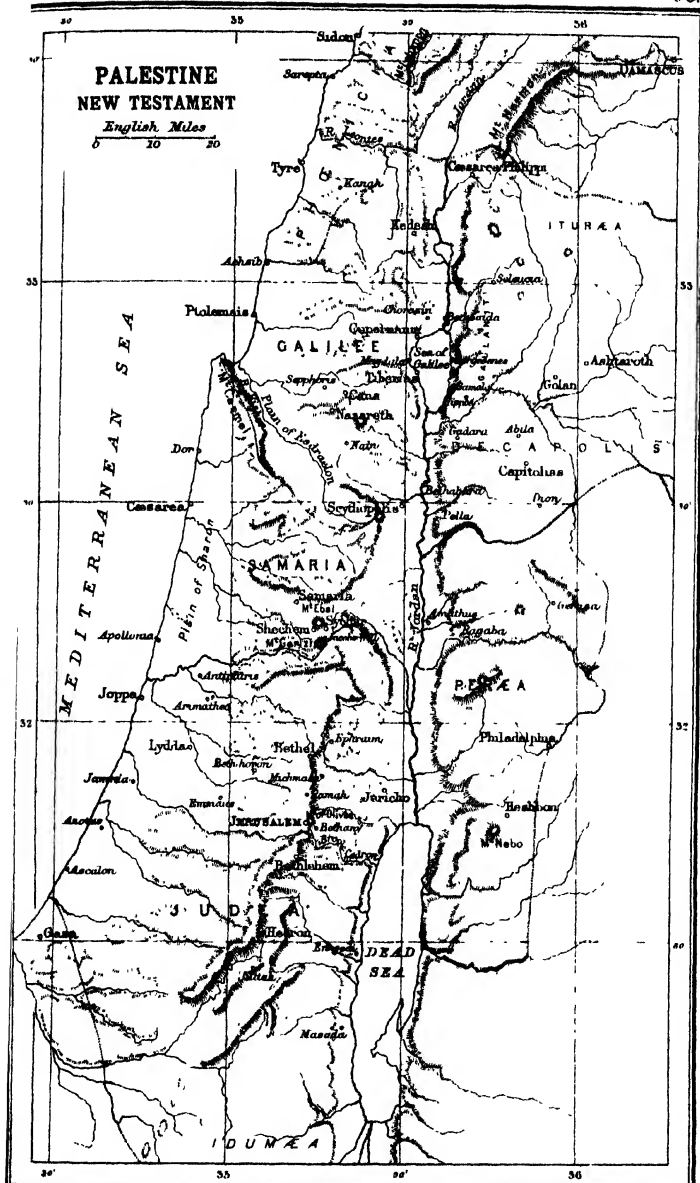






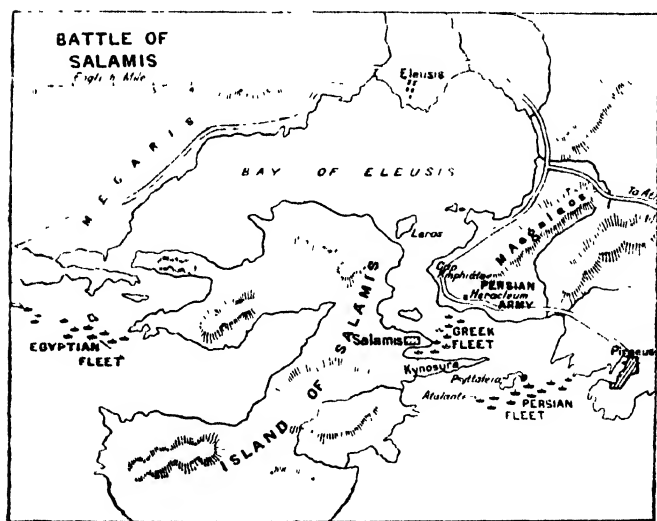
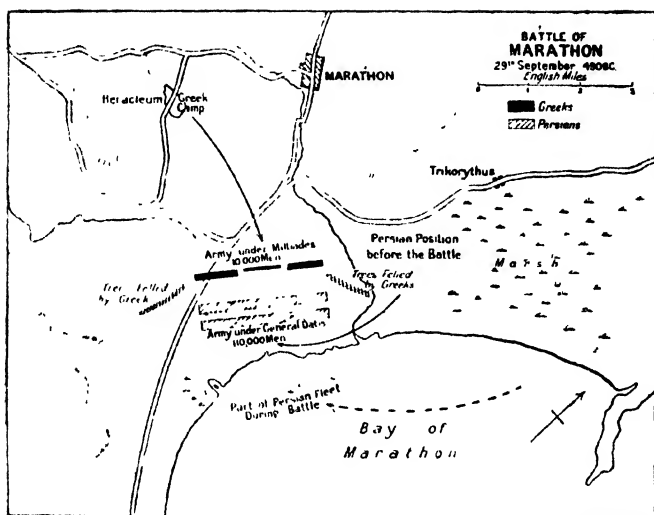
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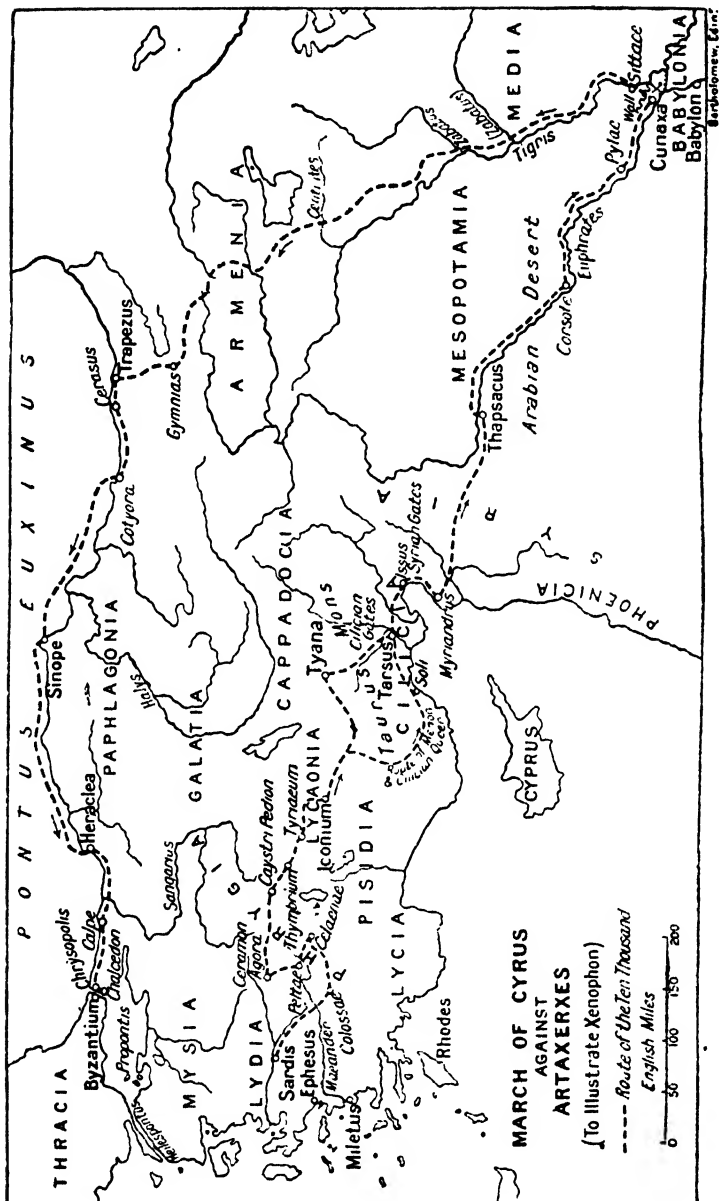
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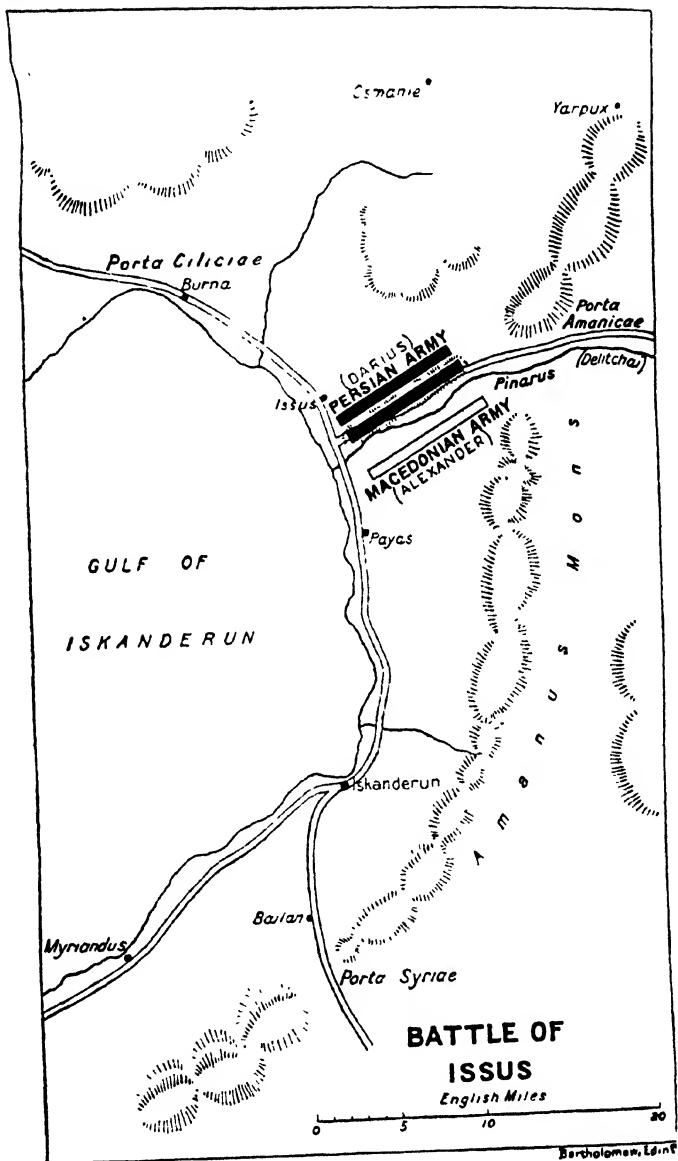


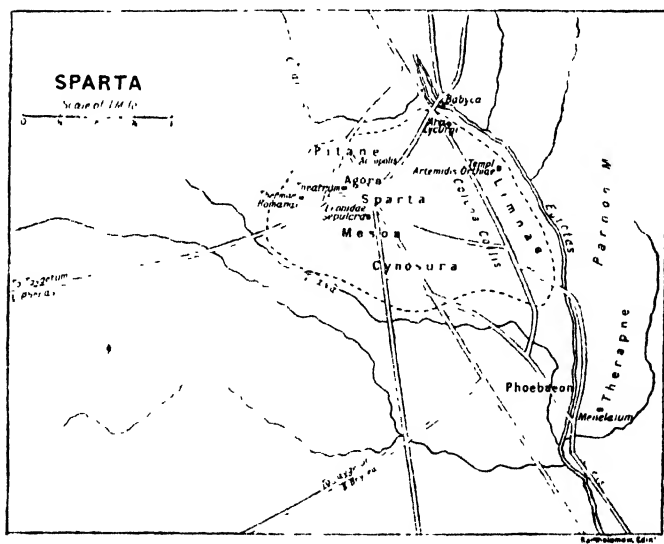
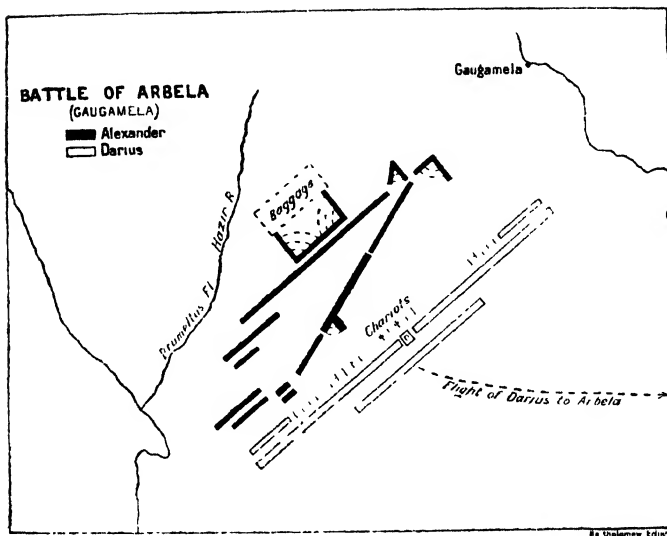
A hand-drawn map of the ancient site of Olympia, Greece. The map shows various landmarks including the Temple of Cronos and Colchos, the Prytaneum, the Gymnasium, the Palaestra, the Hippodromus, the Stadium, the Bouleuterion, the Porticus, the Leonidaem, and the Alpheus river. A scale bar at the bottom right indicates a distance of 400 yards.

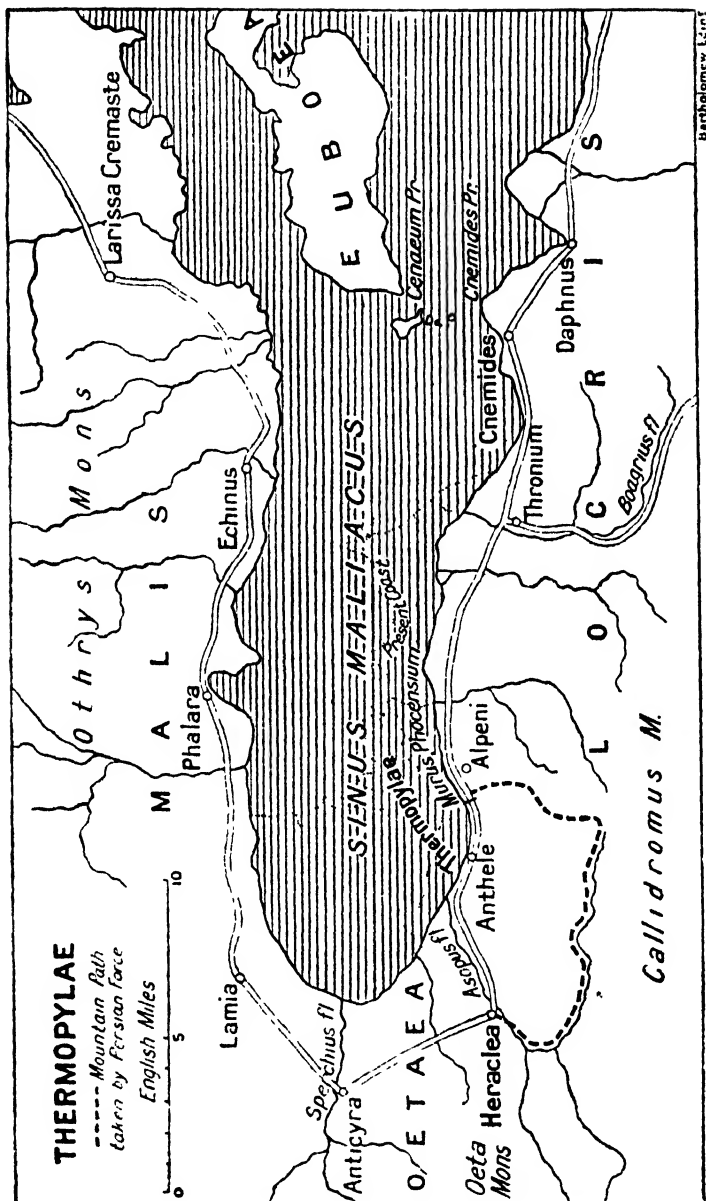
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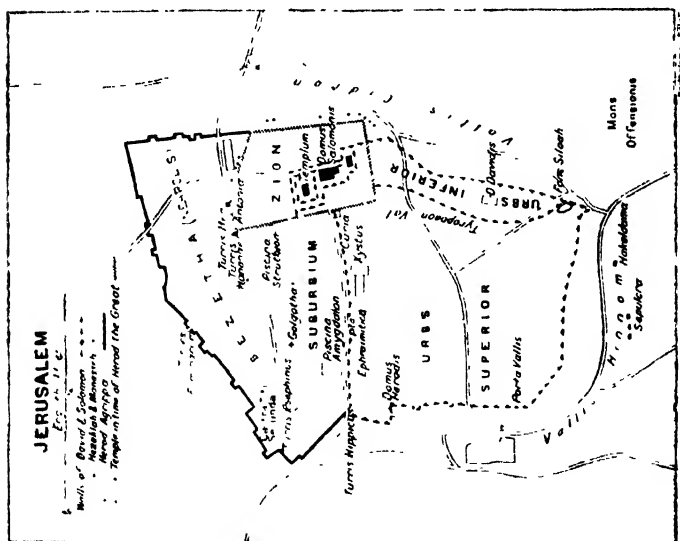
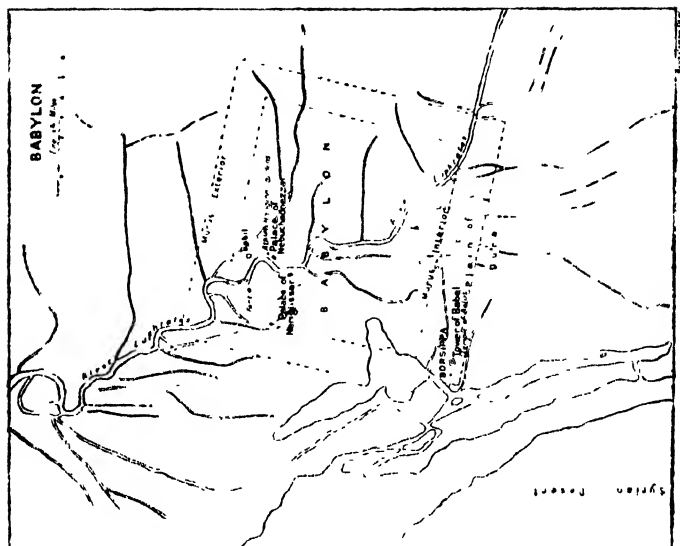


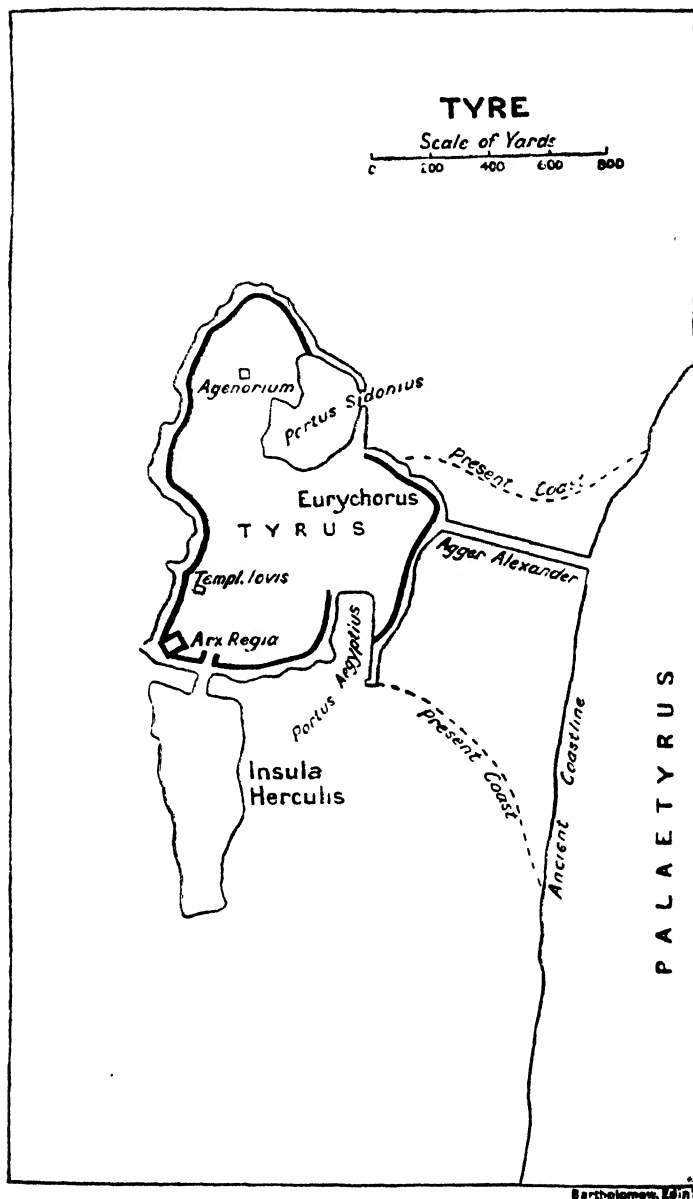


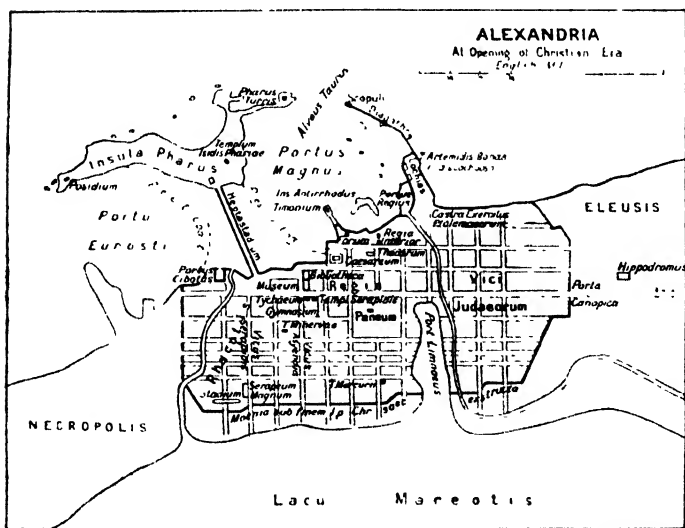
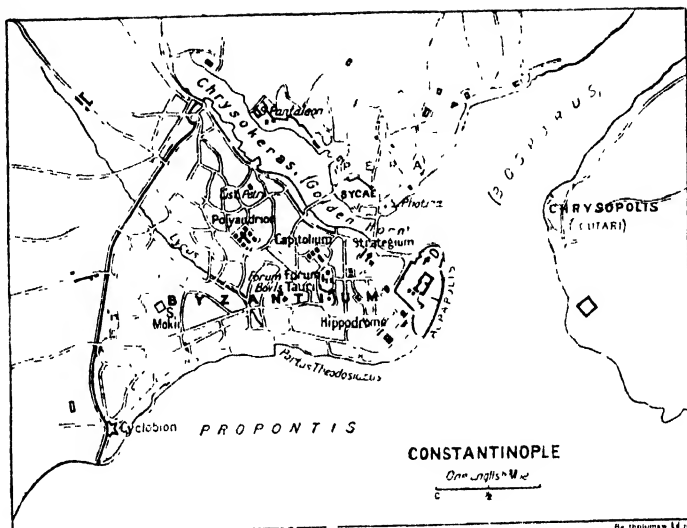


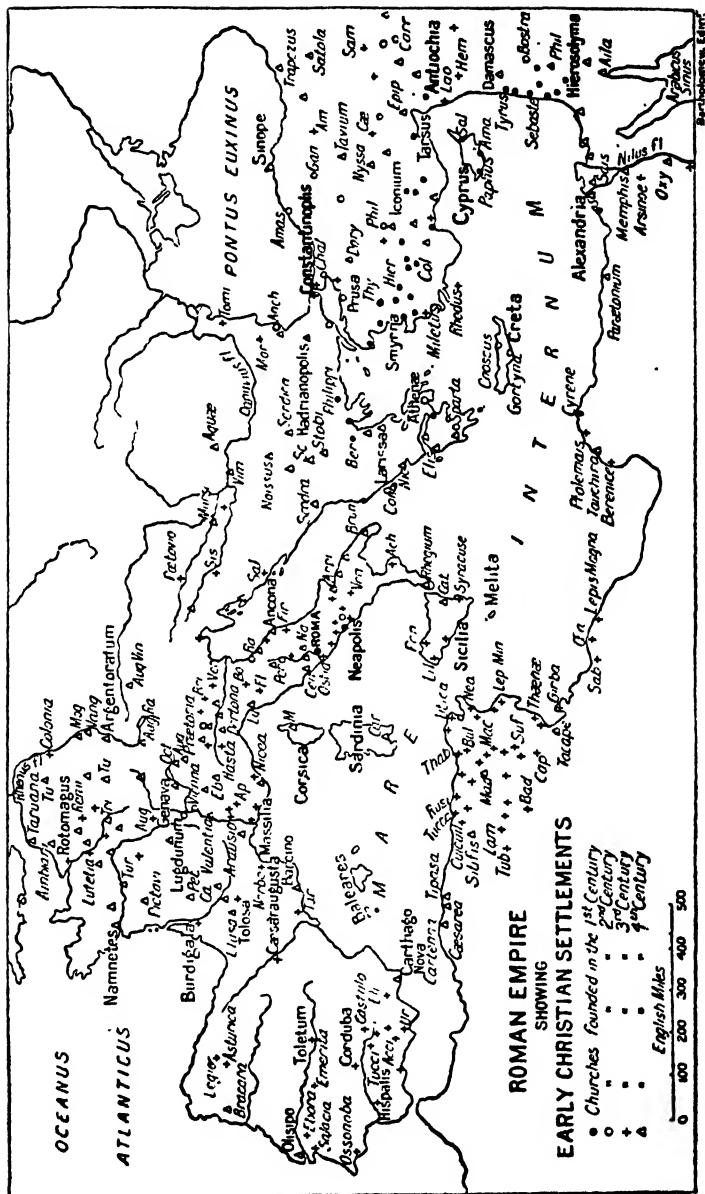












HISTORICAL GAZETTEER

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ALEXANDRIA

The Hellenic capital of Egypt, was founded by Alexander the Great in 332 B.C. It stood in lat. 31° N., long. 47° E. On his voyage from Memphis to Canobus he was struck by the natural advantages of the little town of Rhacôtis, on the north-eastern angle of the Lake Mareotis. The harbour of Rhacôtis, with the adjacent island of Pharos, had been from very remote ages the resort of Greek and Phœnician sea-rovers, and in the former place the Pharaohs kept a permanent garrison. At Rhacôtis Alexander determined to construct the future capital of his western conquests. His architect Deinocrates was instructed to survey the harbour, and to draw out a plan of a military and commercial metropolis of the first rank. The ground-plan was traced by Alexander himself; the building was commenced immediately, but the city was not completed until the reign of the second monarch of the Lagid line, Ptolemy Philadelphus. It continued to

receive embellishment and extension from nearly every monarch of that dynasty. The plan of Deinocrates was carried out by another architect, named Cleomenes, of Naucratis. Ancient writers compare the general form of Alexandria to the cloak worn by the Macedonian cavalry. It was of an oblong figure, rounded at the S.E. and S.W. extremities. Its length from E. to W. was nearly 4 miles; its breadth from S. to N. nearly a mile, and its circumference, according to Pliny, was about 15 miles. The interior was laid out in parallelograms: the streets crossed one another at right angles, and were all wide enough to admit of both wheel carriages and foot-passengers. Two grand thoroughfares nearly bisected the city. They ran in straight lines to its four principal gates, and each was a plethrum, or about 200 feet wide. The longest, 40 stadia in length, ran from the Canobic gate to that of the Necropolis (E.-W.): the shorter, 7-8 stadia in length, extended from the Gate of the Sun to the Gate of the Moon (S.-N.). On its northern side Alexandria was bounded by the sea, sometimes denominated the Egyptian Sea: on the S. by the Lake of Marea or Mareotis; to the W. were the Necropolis and its numerous gardens; to the E. the Eleusinian road and the Great Hippodrome. The tongue of land upon which Alexandria stood was singularly adapted to a commercial city. The island of Pharos broke the force of the N. wind, and of the occasional high floods of the Mediterranean.

The headland of Lochias sheltered its harbours to the E.; the Lake Mareotis was both a wet-dock and the general haven of the inland navigation of the Nile valley, while various other canals connected the lake with the Deltaic branches of the river. The springs of Rhacôtis were few and brackish; but an aqueduct conveyed the Nile water into the southern section of the city, and tanks, many of which are still in use, distributed fresh water to both public and private edifices. The soil, partly sandy and partly calcareous, rendered drainage nearly superfluous. The fogs which periodically linger on the shores of Cyrene and Egypt were dispersed by the north winds which, in the summer season, ventilate the Delta; while the salubrious atmosphere for which Alexandria was celebrated was directly favoured by the Lake Mareotis, whose bed was annually filled from the Nile, and the miasma incident to lagoons scattered by the regular influx of its purifying floods. The inclination of the streets from E. to W. concurred with these causes to render Alexandria healthy; since it broke the force of the Etesian or northern breezes, and diffused an equable temperature over the city. Nor were its military less striking than its commercial advantages. Its harbours were sufficiently capacious to admit of large fleets, and sufficiently contracted at their entrance to be defended by booms and chains. A number of small islands around the Pharos and the harbours were occupied

with forts, and the approach from the N. was further secured by the difficulty of navigating among the limestone reefs and mud-banks which front the mouth of the Nile.

We shall first describe the harbour-line, and next the interior of the city.

The harbour-line commenced from the E. with the peninsular strip Lochias, which terminated seaward in a fort called Acro-Lochias, the modern *Pharillon*. The ruins of a pier on the eastern side of it mark an ancient landing-place, probably belonging to the Palace which, with its groves and gardens, occupied this peninsula. Like all the principal buildings of Alexandria, it commanded a view of the bay and the Pharos. The Lochias formed, with the islet of Antirhodus, the Closed or Royal Port, which was kept exclusively for the king's galleys, and around the head of which were the Royal Dockyards. W. of the Closed Port was the Poseideon or Temple of Neptune, where embarking and returning mariners registered their vows. The northern point of this temple was called the Timonium, whither the defeated triumvir M. Antonius retired after his flight from Actium in 31 B.C. Between Lochias and the Great Mole was the Greater Harbour, and on the western side of the Mole was the Eunostus or Haven of Happy Return, connected by the basin with the canal that led, by one arm, to the Lake Mareotis, and by the other to the Canobic arm of the Nile. The Eunostus

fronted the quarter of the city called Rhacôtis. It was less difficult of access than the Greater Harbour, as the reefs and shoals lie principally N.E. of the Pharos. Its modern name is the Old Port. From the Poseideon to the Mole the shore was lined with dockyards and warehouses, upon whose broad granite quays ships discharged their lading without the intervention of boats. On the western horn of the Eunostus were public granaries.

Fronting the city, and sheltering both its harbours, lay the long narrow island of Pharos. It was a dazzling white calcareous rock, about a mile from Alexandria, and 150 stadia from the Canobic mouth of the Nile. At its eastern point stood the far-famed lighthouse, the work of Sostratus of Cnidus, and, nearer the Heptastadium, was a temple of Phtah or Hephæstus. The Pharos was begun by Ptolemy Soter, but completed by his successor, and dedicated by him to "the gods Soteres," or Soter and Berenice, his parents. It consisted of several stories, and is said to have been 400 feet in height. The old lighthouse of Alexandria still occupies the site of its ancient predecessor. A deep bay on the northern side of the island was called the "Pirates' Haven," from its having been an early place of refuge for Carian and Samian mariners.

The Pharos was connected with the mainland by an artificial mound or causeway, called, from its length, the Heptastadium. There were two breaks in the Mole to let the water flow through, and pre-

vent the accumulation of silt; over these passages bridges were laid, which could be raised up at need. The temple of Hephæstus on Pharos stood at one extremity of the Mole, and the Gate of the Moon on the mainland at the other.

Interior of the City.—Alexandria was divided into three regions: (1) The *Regio Judæorum*. (2) The *Brucheium* or *Pyrucheium*, the Royal or Greek Quarter. (3) The *Rhacôtis* or Egyptian Quarter. This division corresponded to the three original constituents of the Alexandrian population. After 31 B.C. the Romans added a fourth element, but this was principally military and financial, and confined to the *Brucheium*.

1. *Regio Judæorum*, or Jews' Quarter, occupied the N.E. angle of the city, and was encompassed by the sea, the city walls, and the *Brucheium*. Like the Jewry of modern European cities, it had walls and gates of its own, which were at times highly necessary for its security, since between the Alexandrian Greeks and Jews frequent hostilities raged.

2. *Brucheium*, or *Pyrucheium*, the Royal or Greek Quarter, was bounded to the S. and E. by the city walls, N. by the Greater Harbour, and W. by the region *Rhacôtis* and the main street which connected the Gate of the Sun with that of the Moon and the Heptastadium. It was also surrounded by its own walls, and was the quarter in which Cæsar defended himself against the Alexan-

drians. The Bruchesium was bisected by the High Street, which ran from the Canobic Gate to the Necropolis, and was supplied with water from the Nile by a tunnel or aqueduct, which entered the city on the S., and passed a little to the W. of the Gymnasium. This was the quarter of the Alexandrians proper, or Hellenic citizens, the Royal Residence, and the district in which were contained the most conspicuous of the public buildings. It was so much adorned and extended by the later Ptolemies that it eventually occupied one-fifth of the entire city. It contained the following remarkable edifices. On the Lochias, the Palace of the Ptolemies, with the smaller palaces appropriated to their children and the adjacent gardens and groves. The far-famed Library and Museum, with its Theatre for lectures and public assemblies, connected with one another and with the palaces by long colonnades of the most costly marble from the Egyptian quarries, and adorned with obelisks and sphinxes taken from the Pharaonic cities. The Library contained, according to one account, 700,000 volumes, according to another 400,000; part, however, of this unrivalled collection was lodged in the temple of Serapis, in the quarter Rhacôtis. Here were deposited the 200,000 volumes collected by the kings of Pergamus, and presented by M. Antonius to Cleopatra. It suffered severely by fire when Julius Cæsar was besieged in Alexandria, and was finally destroyed by Amrou, the lieutenant of the Caliph

Omar, A.D. 651. The Museum succeeded the once renowned college of Heliopolis as the University of Egypt. It contained a great hall or banqueting room, where the professors dined in common; an exterior peristyle, or corridor, for exercise and ambulatory lectures; and a theatre where public disputations and scholastic festivals were held.

In the Bruchium also stood the Cæsarium, or Temple of the Cæsars, where divine honours were paid to the emperors, deceased or living. Near the site of the Cæsarium is a tower perhaps not inappropriately named the "Tower of the Romans." Proceeding westward, we come to the public granaries and the Mausoleum of the Ptolemies, which, from its containing the body of Alexander the Great, was denominated *Soma*. In this quarter also was the High Court of Justice, in which, under the Ptolemies, the senate assembled and discharged such magisterial duties as a nearly despotic government allowed to them, and where afterwards the Roman Juridicus held his court. A stadium, a gymnasium, a palestra, and an amphitheatre, provided exercise and amusement for the spectacle-loving Alexandrians. The Arsinoëum, on the western side of the Bruchium, was a monument raised by Ptolemy Philadelphus to the memory of his favourite sister Arsinoë; and the Panium was a stone mound, or cone, with a spiral ascent on the outside, from whose summit was visible every quarter of the city. The purpose of this structure

is, however, not ascertained. The edifices of the Bruchesium had been so arranged by Deinocrates as to command a prospect of the Great Harbour and the Pharos. In its centre was a spacious square, surrounded by cloisters and flanked to the N. by the quays—the Emporium, or Alexandrian Exchange. Hither, for nearly eight centuries, every nation of the civilised world sent its representatives. Alexandria had inherited the commerce of both Tyre and Carthage, and collected in this area the traffic and speculation of three continents.

3. *The Rhacôtis*, or Egyptian Quarter, occupied the site of the ancient Rhacôtis. Its principal buildings were granaries along the western arm of the cibotus or basin, a stadium, and the Temple of Serapis. The Serapeion was erected by the first or second of the Ptolemies. The image of the god, which was of wood, was, according to Clemens, enclosed or plated over with layers of every kind of metal and precious stones: it seems also, either from the smoke of incense or from varnish, to have been of a black colour. Its origin and import are doubtful. The Alexandria which the Arabs besieged was nearly identical with the Rhacôtis. It had suffered many calamities both from civil feud and from foreign war. Its Serapeion was twice consumed by fire, once in the reign of Marcus Aurelius, and again in that of Commodus. But this district survived both the *Regio Judæorum* and the *Bruchesium*.

Of the remarkable beauty of Alexandria, we have the testimony of numerous writers who saw it in its prime. Its dilapidation was the effect not of time, but of the hand of man. Its dry atmosphere preserved, for centuries after their erection, the sharp outline and gay colours of its buildings; and when in A.D. 120 the Emperor Hadrian surveyed Alexandria, he beheld almost the virgin city of the Ptolemies.

ARBELA

A town of Eastern Adiabene, one of the provinces of Assyria, between the Lycus and the Caprus. Arbela has been celebrated as the scene of the last conflict between Darius and Alexander the Great. The battle, however, really took place near the village of Gaugamela, on the banks of the Bumodus, a tributary of the Lycus, about 50 miles to the N.W. of Arbela. Darius left his baggage and treasures at Arbela, when he advanced to meet Alexander.

CARTHAGE

The present remains of Carthage are insufficient to guide us to an understanding of the obscure and often apparently contradictory statements of the ancient writers; and the inquirer often sighs over the loss of that picture, representing the site and size of Carthage, which Mancinus, the commander of the fleet in the Third Punic War (148 B.C.), ex-

hibited to the Roman people in the forum, and won the consulship by his zeal in explaining its details. Appian is almost the only ancient author who has left any considerable details; and he is, as usual, very inexact, and in some points evidently quite wrong. Of the main difficulty, it is scarcely an exaggeration to compare it with a doubt among the future antiquaries twenty-five centuries hence, whether London or Southwark stood on the N. side of the Thames. We know that the old Punic city grew up round the original Bosra or Byrsa (whether the citadel called Byrsa in historical times stood on the old site is even doubtful), and that it gradually covered the whole peninsula; and we know that it had a large suburb called Megara or Magalia, and also the New City. We also know that the Roman city stood on a part of the ancient site, and was far inferior to the Old City in extent. But, whether the original Punic city with its harbours was on the N. or S. part of the peninsula; on which side of it the suburb of Megara was situated; and whether the Roman city was built on the site of the former, or of the latter; are questions on which some of the best scholars and geographers hold directly opposite opinions.

Upon the whole, comparing the statements of the ancient writers with the present state of the locality and the few ruins of the Punic city which remain, it seems most probable that the original city was on the S.E. part of the peninsula about *C. Carthage*.

The following are the most important details of the topography:—

1. The *Tænia* was a tongue of land, of a considerable length, and half a stadium in breadth, mentioned again and again by Appian in such a manner that the determination of its position goes far to settle the chief doubt already referred to. It jutted out from the isthmus towards the W., *between the lake and the sea*, and in the closest proximity to the harbours, and also at the weaker extremity of the strong landward wall of the city. All the particulars of Appian's description seem to point to the sandy tongue of land which extends S.W. from the S. extremity of the peninsula to the *Goletta*, or mouth of the Lagoon of Tunis, and divides in part this lagoon from the open sea. That this tongue of land is larger than he describes it, is a confirmation of the identity, considering the changes which we know to have been going on; and the slight discrepancy involved in his making the *tænia* jut out from the *isthmus*, whereas it actually proceeds from the *peninsula*, is surely hardly worthy of discussion. No room would have been left for doubt, had Appian told us *what lake* he meant; but that he omits to tell us this, seems of itself a strong proof that he meant the Lagoon of Tunis.

2. The *Walls* are especially difficult to trace with any certainty. At the time when the city was most flourishing, it is pretty clear that they encompassed, as might have been expected, the whole

circuit of the peninsula, speaking generally; and Appian informs us that on one side (evidently towards the sea, but the words are wanting) there was only a single wall, because of the precipitous nature of the ground; but that on the S., towards the land side, it was threefold. But when we come to particulars, first, as to the sea side, it is not certain whether the two eminences of *C. Ghamart* and *C. Carthage* were included within the fortifications, or were left, either wholly or in part, unfortified on account of their natural strength. In the final siege, we find Mancinus attacking from the side of the sea a part of the wall, the defence of which was neglected on account of the almost inaccessible precipices on that side, and establishing himself in a fort adjacent to the walls. On the whole, it seems probable that on both the great heights the walls were drawn along the summit rather than the base, so that they would not include the N. slope of *C. Ghamart*, nor the E. and S. slopes of *C. Carthage*.

The land side presents still greater difficulties. The length of the wall which Scipio drew across the isthmus to blockade the city, and which was 25 stadia from sea to sea, gives us only the measure of the width of the isthmus (probably at its narrowest part), not of the land face of the city, which stood on wider ground. Strabo assigns to the whole walls a circumference of 360 stadia, 60 of which belonged to the wall on the land side, which reached from sea to sea. Explicit as this statement is, it seems

impossible to reconcile it with the actual dimensions of the peninsula, for which even the 23 Roman miles assigned to it by Livy would seem too much. The 60 stadia of Strabo have been obtained by taking in the walls along the N. and S. sides of the peninsula, as well as that across it on the land side, which is quite inconsistent with the plain meaning of the writer; or by supposing that Strabo gives the total length of the triple line of wall, a most arbitrary and improbable assumption. Besides, the language of Strabo seems obviously to refer to the actual width of that part of the isthmus across which the wall was built. The only feasible explanation seems to be, that the wall was not built across the narrowest part of the isthmus, but was thrown back to where it had begun to widen out into the peninsula; and it seems also fair to make some allowance for deviations from a straight line. A confirmation of the length assigned to the wall by Strabo is found in Appian's statement, that Scipio made simultaneous attacks on the land defences of Megara alone at points 20 stadia distant from each other, the whole breadth of the isthmus being, as we have seen, only 25 stadia.

Be this as it may, we know that this land wall formed by far the most important part of the defences of the city. It consisted of three distinct lines, one behind the other, each of them 30 cubits high without the parapets. There were towers at the distance of 2 plethra, 4 stories high, and 30 feet

deep. Within each wall were built two stories of vaulted chambers, or casements, in the lower range of which were stables for 300 elephants, and in the upper range stables for 4000 horses, with ample stores of food for both. In the spaces between the walls there were barracks for 20,000 infantry and 4000 cavalry, with magazines and stores of proportionate magnitude; forming, in fact, a vast fortified camp between the city and the isthmus. It would seem from Appian that this description applies to the S. part of the landward wall, behind which lay Byrsa. The N. part of the landward wall, surrounding the suburb of Megara, seems to have been less strongly fortified, and accordingly we find some of the chief attacks of Scipio directed against it. Appian adds to his description of the triple wall, that its corner which bent round towards the harbours, by the *Tænia*, or tongue of land mentioned above, was the only part that was weak and low; and on this point also we find the Romans directing their attacks.

The limits of the Roman city can be defined with greater certainty. It remained, indeed, without a fortified enclosure, down to the fourteenth year of Theodosius II. (424 B.C.), when the increasing dangers of the African province both from the native and foreign barbarians suggested the policy of fortifying its capital. The remains of the wall then built can still be traced, and sufficient ruins of the city are visible to indicate its extent; while

the limits are still further marked by the position of the great reservoirs, which we know to have been without the walls.

That Roman Carthage stood on the site of the ancient Punic city, and not, as some maintain, on that of the suburb of Megara, seems tolerably clear. Not to lay too much stress on Pliny's phrase "in vestigiis magnæ Carthaginis," it appears that the new city was supplied from the same aqueduct and reservoirs, and had its citadel and chief temples on the same sites, as of old. The restored temple of Æsculapius was again the chief sanctuary, and that of the goddess Cœlestis became more magnificent than ever.

3. *Harbours*.—In accordance with that view of the topography which we follow, the double harbour of Carthage must be looked for on the S. side of the peninsula, at the angle which it forms with the *Tænia* described above, within the *Lagoon of Tunis*. The fact that Scipio Africanus the elder could see from Tunis the Punic fleet sailing out of the harbour seems a decisive proof of the position, which is confirmed by many other indications.

The port consisted of an outer and an inner harbour, with a passage from the one into the other; and the outer had an entrance from the sea 70 feet wide, which was closed with iron chains. The outer harbour was for the merchantmen, and was full of moorings. The inner harbour was reserved for the ships of war. Just within its entrance was an

island called Cothon, rising to a considerable elevation above the surrounding banks, and thus serving the double purpose of a mask to conceal the harbour from without, and an observatory for the port-admiral, who had his tent upon it, whence he gave signals by the trumpet and commands by the voice of a herald. The shores of the island and of the port were built up with great quays, in which were constructed docks for 220 ships (one, it would seem, for each), with storehouses for all their equipments. The entrance of each dock was adorned with a pair of Ionic columns, which gave the whole circuit of the island and the harbour the appearance of a magnificent colonnade on each side. So jealously was this inner harbour guarded, even from the sight of those frequenting the outer, that, besides a double wall of separation, gates were provided to give access to the city from the outer harbour, without passing through the docks.

4. *Byrsa*.—This name is used in a double sense, for the most ancient part of the city, adjoining to the harbours, and for the citadel or *Byrsa*, in the stricter sense. When Appian speaks of the triple land wall on the S., as “where the *Byrsa* was upon the isthmus,” it may be doubted in which sense he uses the term; but, when he comes to describe the storming of the city, he gives us a minute description of the locality of the citadel.

Close to the harbours stood the Forum, from which three narrow streets of houses six stories high

ascended to the Byrsa, which was by far the strongest position in the whole city. There can be little doubt of its identity with the *Hill of S. Louis*, an eminence rising to the height of 188 Paris feet (about 200 English), and having its summit in the form of an almost regular plateau, sloping a little towards the sea. Its regularity suggests the probability of its being an artificial mound (probably about a natural core) formed of the earth dug up in excavating the harbours; a kind of work which we know to have been common among the old Semitic nations.

On the sides of the hill there are still traces of the ancient walls which enclosed the Byrsa and made it a distinct fortress, and which seem to have risen, terrace above terrace, like those of the citadel of Ecbatana.

On the summit stood the temple of Æsculapius (Esmun), by far the richest in the city, raised on a platform which was ascended by sixty steps, and probably resembling in its structure the temple of Belus at Babylon. It was in this temple that the senate held in secret their most important meetings.

The Byrsa remained the citadel of Carthage in its later existence; and the temple of Æsculapius was restored by the Romans. On it was the *prætorium* of the proconsul of Africa, which became successively the palace of the Vandal kings and of the Byzantine governors.

5. *Forum and Streets*.—As we have just seen, the Forum lay at the S. foot of the hill of Byrsa, adjacent

to the harbours. It contained the senate house, the tribunal, and the temple of the god whom the Greeks and Romans call Apollo, whose golden image stood in a chapel overlaid with gold to the weight of 1000 talents. The three streets already mentioned as ascending from the Forum to the Byrsa formed an important outwork to its fortifications; and Scipio had to storm them house by house. The centre street, which probably led straight up to the temple of Æsculapius, was called, in Roman Carthage, *Via Salutaris*. The other streets of the city seem to have been for the most part straight and regularly disposed at right angles.

6. *Other Temples*.—On the N. side of the Byrsa, on lower terraces of the hill, are the remains of two temples, which some take for those of Cœlestis and Saturn; but the localities are doubtful. We know that the worship of both these deities was continued in the Roman city.

7. On the W. and S.W. side of the Byrsa are ruins of *Baths*, probably the *Thermæ Gargilianæ*, a locality famous in the ecclesiastical history of Carthage; of a spacious *Circus*, and of an *Amphitheatre*.

8. *Aqueduct and Reservoirs*.—The great aqueduct 50 miles long, by which Carthage was supplied with water from *Jebel Zaghwan*, is supposed by some to be a work of the Punic age; but Barth believes it to be Roman. The *Reservoirs* are among the most interesting remains of Carthage, especially on account of the peculiarly constructed vaulting which

covers them. They are probably of Punic workmanship. Besides some smaller ones, there are two principal sets; those on the W. of the city, where the aqueduct terminated, and those on the S., near the Cothon.

9. Besides the above, there are ruins which seem to be those of a *Theatre*, and also the remains of a great building, apparently the largest in the city, which Barth conjectures to be the temple of Cœlestis. These ruins consist, like the rest, only of broken foundations.

10. The Suburb of Megara, Magar, or Magalia, afterwards considered as a quarter of the city, under the name of Neapolis (New City), was surrounded by a wall, and adorned with beautiful gardens, watered by canals.

11. *Necropolis*.—From the few graves found in the rocky soil of the hill of *C. Ghamart*, it seems probable that here was the ancient necropolis, N. of the city, a position in which it is frequently, if not generally, found in other ancient cities. There is, however, some doubt on the matter, which the evidence is insufficient to decide.

CONSTANTINOPLE

Ancient Byzantium was situated on the first of the seven hills upon which, rising one above another, the modern city stands; but its area occupied more than the first region of the later town. In all probability it extended over the three regions which lie behind the triangular space now filled by the Seraglio. According to Dionysius of Byzantium, its circumference was 40 stadia.

It was upon this gently sloping promontory, which serves as a connecting link between the Eastern and Western world, that Constantine determined to fix the city which bore the name of its founder.

The walls of Constantine across the enlarged breadth of the triangle were begun at a distance of 15 stadia from the old fortifications, and stretching from the port to the Propontis, enclosed five out of the seven hills upon which the city stood, but were not finished before the reign of Constantius. In 401, Arcadius repaired these walls which had fallen in the earthquake that had taken place in that year. In 413, during the minority of Theodosius II., Anthemius, the Prætorian prefect, razed the old fortifications and built a new enclosure of walls. In 447 this was thrown down by an earthquake, and rebuilt in three months by the diligence of the prefect Cyrus. This double line of strong and lofty stone walls has, except on the land side, almost disappeared, but in a dilapidated state they

still exist, extending from the port to the sea of Marmora for about 4 English miles, presenting magnificent and picturesque specimens of mural ruins. The wall was flanked at short intervals by towers, mostly rectangular. The extreme length of the city at this period, and it never greatly exceeded these limits, was about 3 Roman miles, and the circuit rather less than 13 R. M. The Sycæ, or fig trees, formed the thirteenth region beyond the harbour, and were much embellished by Justinian. The suburb of Blachernæ was not taken into the city till the reign of Heraclius.

In the new capital of Constantine, emancipated from the restraint of Pagan associations and art, the Byzantine builders founded an architecture peculiarly their own. Of this the cupola was the great characteristic, to which every other feature was subordinate. In consequence of this principle, that which at Athens was straight, angular, and square, became in Constantinople curved and rounded, concave within, and convex without. Thus the old architecture of Greece owed its destruction to the same nation from which it had taken its first birth.

At the siege of Byzantium, Constantine had pitched his tent upon the second hill; to commemorate his success, he chose this site for the principal forum, which appears to have been of an elliptical form. The two opposite entrances formed triumphal arches; the porticoes, which enclosed it

on every side, were filled with statues of the tutelar deities of Greece.

At each end were two shrines, one of which held the statue of Cybele, which was said to have been placed by the Argonauts upon Mt. Dindymus, but deprived of her lions and of her hands from the attitude of command distorted into that of a suppliant for the city; in the other was the Fortune of Byzantium. The centre of the Forum was occupied by a lofty pillar, which, formed of marble and porphyry, rose to the height of 120 feet. On this column Constantine, with singular shamelessness, placed his own statue with the attributes of Christ and Apollo, and substituted the nails of the Passion for the rays of the Sun; Constantine was replaced by Julian, Julian by Theodosius. In A.D. 1412 the keystone was loosened by an earthquake. The statue fell under Alexius Comnenus, and was replaced by the Cross. The Palladium was said to be buried under the pillar. Besides the principal forum was a second one, which has been sometimes confounded with the other; it was square, with porticoes surrounding it, consisting of two ranks of columns; in this the Augusteum, or court of the palace, stood the Golden Miliarium, which was an elevated arcade, embellished with statues.

The Circus or Hippodrome was a stately building. The space between the two metæ or goals was filled with statues and obelisks. Near this stands the wreathed column of bronze, which, according to

legend, bore the golden tripod of Delphi, and was shattered by the iron mace of Mohammed II. Fourteen churches, fourteen palaces, several triumphal arches, and eight public baths are assigned to the founder of the city. Constantine, and in this his example was followed by his successors, imitated Ancient Rome in the construction of sewers. Two large subterranean cisterns or reservoirs of water, constructed by the Greek emperors in case of a siege, still remain; one, called by the Turks the palace of the "Thousand and One Pillars," is now perfectly dry. The other, still existing as a cistern, and called the "Subterranean Palace," may be described as an underground lake, with an arched roof to cover it, supported on 336 marble pillars.

From the throne, seated upon which the emperor viewed the games of the Circus, a winding staircase called *cochlea* descended to the palace. This was a magnificent building, covering a great extent of ground, on the banks of the Propontis, between the Hippodrome and the church of Santa Sophia, now the Seraglio. The baths of Zeuxippus, the site of which it is difficult to fix, were so embellished by Constantine with statues of marble and bronze, that they became famed as the most beautiful in the world.

While private houses and public buildings for business, for convenience, for amusement, and splendour rose with the rapidity of enchantment, one class of edifices was wanting. A few temples,

such as those of the Sun, the Moon, and Aphrodite, were permitted to stand in the Heropolis, though deprived of their revenues. But few churches were built; of these one was dedicated to the Supreme Wisdom. The ancient Temple of Peace, which afterwards formed part of Santa Sophia, was appropriately transformed into a church. The Church of the Twelve Apostles appears from Eusebius to have been finished a few days before the death of Constantine; it fell to ruin 20 years afterwards, was repaired by Constantius, rebuilt by Justinian, and demolished by Mohammed II.

Theodosius the Great built the principal gate of Constantinople, "The Golden Gate," so celebrated by the Byzantine writers; this gate, on the S. of the town, was that by which the emperors made their solemn entry, and stood at the beginning of the principal street, which crossed the town up to the Bosphorus. The Empress Eudoxia, wife of Arcadius, ornamented her city with a palace and baths. Theodosius II. encouraged architecture, and executed considerable works; in his reign the walls of Constantinople were in great measure rebuilt, and the city adorned with *thermæ*, a forum, and two palaces for the sisters of Pulcheria. In 447, after the great earthquake, the edifices of Constantinople were restored with renewed splendour. Marcian turned his attention chiefly to the aqueducts; Leo I. Thrax to the churches of Constantinople. Justin I. contributed to the embellishments,

or rather restoration of Constantinople. The reign of Justinian is the most brilliant epoch of the Neo-Greek or Byzantine architecture; and, like Hadrian, this emperor was entitled to the proud distinction of being called by his contemporaries "reparator orbis." The great ornament of Constantinople was the temple reared by Justinian in honour of the Eternal Wisdom (Santa Sophia). This, the principal church of Constantinople, had been twice destroyed by fire, after the exile of John Chrysostom, and during the *Nika* of the Blue and Green factions. Anthemius of Tralles, and Isidorus of Miletus, were the builders employed by Justinian to rebuild the church. Disregarding the cardinal rule that all architectural artifice is inconsistent with good taste, they endeavoured to make it appear entirely hovering in air without the least earthly resting-place. The attempt was unsuccessful, for, in A.D. 558, twenty-one years after the dedication, an earthquake nearly destroyed it; another Isidorus, nephew of the former, was employed to restore it; an elevation of 20 feet more than it had before its fall was given to the dome, and the originally circular was changed to an elliptical form. Though such was the lightness of the dome that it appeared suspended "by a chain from Heaven," the circle which encompasses the dome rested on four strong arches, supported on four massive piles, assisted on the N. and S. sides by four columns of granite, each of a shaft 40 feet long. Two larger and six smaller

semi-domes sprouted out and encircled the central cupola. The ground-plan describes the figure of a Greek cross within a quadrangle, but on the inside was oval. Besides this great model of Eastern architecture, Justinian erected more than twenty-five churches in Constantinople and its suburbs. In honour of himself a colossal statue, representing the emperor mounted on horseback and in an attitude of defiance, was placed upon a column in the Augusteum before Santa Sophia. The palace was also restored by Justinian, and magnificently adorned with bronze, many-coloured marbles and mosaics, representing the glories of the African and Italian triumphs. From the time of Heraclius to the hour of her fall, the outward glories of Constantinople shared the same fate as her renown and greatness.

ISSUS

A town of Cilicia, on the gulf of Issus. Herodotus calls the gulf of Issus the gulf of Myriandrus, from the town of Myriandrus, which was on it.

The gulf of Issus is now named the gulf of *Iskenderum* or *Scanderoon*, from the town of *Scanderoon*, formerly Alexandria ad Issum, on the E. side. It is the only large gulf on the southern side of Asia Minor and on the Syrian coast, and it is an important place in the systems of the Greek geographers. This gulf runs in a N.E. direction into the land to the distance of 47 miles, measured nearly at right angles

to a line drawn from the promontory Megarsus, on the Cilician coast, to the Rhosicus Scopulus, on the Syrian coast; for these two capes are respectively the limits of the gulf on the W. and E., and 25 miles from one another. The width immediately N. of the capes is somewhat less than 25 miles, but it does not diminish much till we approach the northern extremity of the gulf. Issus is the remotest city in this part of Cilicia which Ptolemy mentions. Xenophon also speaks of it as the last city of Cilicia on the road to Syria.

Xenophon says that Cyrus marched 15 parasangs from the Pyramus "to Issi, the uttermost city of Cilicia, on the sea, great and prosperous." From Issus to the Pylæ of Cilicia and Syria, the boundary between Syria and Cilicia, was 5 parasangs, and here was the river Carsus. The next stage was 5 parasangs to Myriandrus, a town in Syria on the sea, occupied by Phœnicians, a trading place, where many merchant ships were lying.

The nearest road to Susa from Sardis was through the Cilician plains. The difficulties were the passage into the plains by the Ciliciæ Pylæ or pass, and the way out of the plains along the gulf of Issus into Syria. The great road to Susa, which Herodotus describes, went N. of the Taurus to the Euphrates. The land forces in the expedition of Datis and Artaphernes, 490 B.C., crossed the Syrian Amanus, and went as far as the Aleian plain in Cilicia; and there they embarked. They did not march by

land through the Cilician Pylæ over the Taurus into the interior of the peninsula; but Mardonius in the previous expedition had led his troops into Cilicia, and sent them on by land to the Hellespontus, while he took ship and sailed to Ionia. The land force of Mardonius must have passed out to Cilicia by the difficult pass in the Taurus.

Shortly before the battle of Issus (333 B.C.), Alexander was at Mallos, when he heard that Darius with all his force was at Sochi in Assyria; which place was distant two marches from the Assyrian Pylæ. "Assyria" and "Assyrian" here mean "Syria" and "Syrian." Darius had crossed the Euphrates, probably at Thapsacus, and was encamped in an open country in Syria, which was well suited for his cavalry. Curtius says that Alexander only reached Castabalum on the second day from Mallos; that he went through Issus, and there deliberated whether he should go on or halt. Darius crossed the Amanus, which separates Syria from the bay of Issus, by a pass called the Amanicæ Pylæ, and advancing to Issus, was in the rear of Alexander, who had passed through the Cilician and Syrian Pylæ. Darius came to the pass in the Amanus, says Curtius, on the same night that Alexander came to the pass by which Syria is entered. The place where Darius crossed the Amanus was so situated that he came to Issus first, where he shamefully treated the sick of the Macedonians who had been left there. The next day

he moved from Issus to pursue Alexander, that is, he moved towards the Pylæ, and he came to the banks of the river Pinarus, where he halted. Issus was, therefore, N. of the Pinarus, and some little distance from it.

Alexander, hearing that the Persians were in his rear, turned back to the Pylæ, which he reached at midnight, and halted till daybreak, when he moved on. So long as the road was narrow, he led his army in column, but as the pass widened, he extended his column into line, part towards the mountains and part on the left towards the sea. When he came to the wide part he arranged his army in order of battle. Darius was posted on the N. side of the Pinarus. It is plain, from this description, that Alexander did not march very far from the Pylæ before he reached the wider part of the valley, and the river. As the sea was on his left, and the mountains on his right, the river was a stream which ran down from the Syrian Amanus; and it can be no other than the *Deli Tschai*, which is about 13 miles N. of the Carsus. Polybius states that Darius descended into Cilicia through the Pylæ Amanides, and encamped on the Pinarus, at a place where the distance between the mountains and the sea was not more than 14 stadia; and that the river ran across this place into the sea, and that in its course through the level part "it had abrupt and difficult eminences." This is explained by what Arrian says of the banks of the river being steep in

many parts on the N. side. Callisthenes further said, that when Alexander, after having passed the defile, heard of Darius being in Cilicia, he was 100 stadia from him, and, accordingly, he marched back through the defile. It is not clear, from the extract in Polybius, whether the 100 stadia are to be reckoned to Issus or to the Pinarus. According to Arrian, when Alexander heard of Darius being behind him, he sent some men in a galley back to Issus, to see if it was so; and it is most consistent with the narrative to suppose that the men saw the Persians at Issus before they had advanced to the river; but this is not quite certain. The Persian army was visible, being near the coast, as it would be, if it were seen at Issus.

Strabo, following the historians of Alexander, adds nothing to what Arrian has taken from them. Alexander, he says, led his infantry from Soli along the coast and through the Mallotis to Issus and the forces of Darius; an expression which might mislead, if we had no other narrative. He also says, after Mallos is Ægæ, a small town with a harbour, then the Amanides Pylæ, where there is a harbour; and after Ægæ is Issus, a small town with a harbour, and the river Pinarus, where the fight was between Alexander and Darius. Accordingly he places Issus N. of the Pinarus. Cicero, during his consulship of Cilicia, led his forces against the mountaineers of the Amanus, and he was saluted as imperator at Issus, "where," he says, "as I have

often heard from you, Clitarchus told you that Darius was defeated by Alexander." In another passage, he says that he occupied for a few days the same camp that Alexander had occupied at Issus against Darius. And again, he says that "he encamped for four days at the roots of the Amanus, at the Aræ Alexandri." If this is the same fact that he mentions in his letter to Atticus, the Aræ were at Issus, and Issus was near the foot of the Amanus.

JERUSALEM

Jerusalem was situated in the heart of the mountain district which commences at the S. of the great plain of Esdrælon and is continued throughout the whole of Samaria and Judæa quite to the southern extremity of the Promised Land. It is almost equidistant from the Mediterranean and from the river Jordan, being about 30 miles from each, and situated at an elevation of 2000 feet above the level of the Mediterranean. Its site is well defined by its circumjacent valleys.

Valleys.—(1) In the N.W. quarter of the city is a shallow depression, occupied by an ancient pool. This is the head of the *Valley of Hinnom*, which from this point takes a southern course, confining the city on the western side, until it makes a sharp angle to the E., and forms the southern boundary

of the city to its S.E. quarter, where it is met by another considerable valley from the N., which must next be described.

(2) At the distance of somewhat less than 1500 yards from the "upper pool" at the head of the Valley of Hinnom, are the "Tombs of the Kings," situated at the head of the *Valley of Jehoshaphat*, which runs at first in an eastern course at some distance N. of the modern city, until, turning sharply to the S., it skirts the eastern side of the town, and meets the Valley of Hinnom at the S.E. angle, as already described, from whence they run off together in a southerly direction to the Dead Sea.

The space between the basin at the head of the Valley of Hinnom and the head of the Valley of Jehoshaphat is occupied by a high rocky ridge or swell of land, which attains its highest elevation a little without the N.W. angle of the present town. The city, then, occupied the termination of this broad swell of land, being isolated, except on the N., by the two great valleys already described, towards which the ground declined rapidly from all parts of the city. This rocky promontory is, however, broken by one or two subordinate valleys, and the declivity is not uniform.

(3) There is, for example, another valley, very inferior in magnitude to those which encircle the city, but of great importance in a topographical view, as being the main geographical feature mentioned by Josephus in his description of the city.

This valley of the Tyropœon (Cheesemakers) meets the Valley of Hinnom at the Pool of Siloam, very near its junction with the Valley of Jehoshaphat, and can be distinctly traced through the city, along the W. side of the Temple enclosure, to the Damascus gate, where it opens into a small plain.

Hills.—Ancient Jerusalem, according to Josephus, occupied “two eminences, which fronted each other, and were divided by an intervening ravine, at the brink of which the closely-built houses terminated.” To these was later added a third eminence on the N.E., called the Temple Mount.

But when in process of time the city overflowed its old boundaries, the hill *Bezetha*, or *New City*, was added to the ancient hills, as is thus described by Josephus:—“The city, being over-abundant in population, began gradually to creep beyond its old walls, and the people joining to the city the region which lay to the N. of the temple and close to the hill (of Acra), advanced considerably, so that even a fourth eminence was surrounded with habitations, viz. that which is called Bezetha, situated opposite to the Antonia, and divided from it by a deep ditch; for the ground had been cut through on purpose, that the foundations of the Antonia might not, by joining the eminence, be easy of approach, and of inferior height.”

The Antonia was a castle situated at the north-western angle of the outer enclosure of the Temple, occupying a precipitous rock 50 cubits high.

WALLS

1. *Upper City and Old Wall.*—"Of the three walls, the old one was difficult to be taken, both on account of the ravines, and of the eminence above them on which it was situated. But, in addition to the advantage of the position, it was also strongly built, as David and Solomon, and the kings after them, were very zealous about the work. Beginning towards the N., from the tower called Hippicus, and passing through the place called Xystus, then joining the council chamber, it was united to the western cloister of the Temple. In the other direction, towards the W., commencing from the same place, and extending through a place called Bethso to the gate of the Essenes, and then turning towards the S. above the fountain Siloam, thence again bending toward the E. to the Pool of Solomon, and running through a place which they called Ophla, it was joined to the eastern cloister of the Temple." To understand this description, it is only necessary to remark that the walls are described, not by the direction in which they run, but by the quarter which they face, *i.e.* the wall "turning towards the S." is the S. wall, and so with the others; so that the Hippic Tower evidently lay at the N.W. angle of the Upper City.

The Hippic Tower is mentioned in connection with two neighbouring towers on the same N. wall,

all built by Herod the Great, and connected with his splendid palace that occupied the N.W. angle of the Upper City. "These towers," says the historian, "surpassed all in the world in extent, beauty, and strength, and were dedicated to the memory of his brother, his friend, and his best loved wife.

"To these towers, situated on the N., was joined within—

"*The Royal Palace*, surpassing all powers of description. It was entirely surrounded by a wall 30 cubits high, with decorated towers at equal intervals, and contained enormous banqueting halls, besides numerous chambers richly adorned. There were also many porticoes encircling one another, with different columns to each, surrounding green courts, planted with a variety of trees, having long avenues through them; and deep channels and reservoirs everywhere around, filled with bronze statues, through which the water flowed; and many towers of tame pigeons about the fountains."

As the *Xystus* is mentioned next to the Hippicus by Josephus, in his description of the N. wall of the Upper City, it may be well to proceed at once to that. The *Xystus* is properly a covered portico attached to the Greek Gymnasium, which commonly had uncovered walks connected with it. As the Jerusalem *Xystus* was a place where public meetings were occasionally convened, it must be understood to be a wide public promenade, though not neces-

sarily connected with a gymnasium, but perhaps rather with another palace which occupied "this extremity of the Upper City."

The House of the Asmonæans was above the Xystus, and was apparently occupied as a palace by the Younger Agrippa; for, when he addressed the multitude assembled in the Xystus, he placed his sister Berenice in the house of the Asmonæans, that she might be visible to them.

The Causeway.—At the Xystus we are told *a causeway* joined the Temple to the Upper City, and one of the Temple gates opened on to this causeway.

It is highly probable that the Xystus was nothing else than the wide promenade over this mound, adorned with a covered cloister between the trees, with which the Rabbinical traditions assure us that Solomon's causeway was shaded. It is clear that the N. wall of the Upper City must have crossed the valley by this causeway to the Gate *Shallecheth*, which is explained to mean the Gate of the Embankment.

The Council-Chamber is the next place mentioned on the northern line of wall, as the point where it joined the western portico of the Temple.

We have now to trace the wall of the Upper City in the opposite direction from the same point, viz. the Hippic Tower at the N.W. angle. The points noticed are comparatively few. "It first ran southward (*i.e.* with a western aspect), through a place

called Bethso, to the Gate of the Essenes; then, turning E., it ran (with a southern aspect) above the fountain of Siloam; thence it bent northward, and ran (with an eastern aspect) to the Pool of Solomon, and extending as far as a place called Ophla, was joined to the eastern cloister of the Temple."

Along the S. face of the Upper City the old wall may still be traced, partly by scarped rock and partly by foundations of the ancient wall, which have served as a quarry for the repairs of the neighbouring buildings for many ages. As it is clear that the Upper City was entirely encompassed with a wall of its own, nowhere noticed by Josephus, except so far as it was coincident with the outer wall, it may be safely conjectured that this E. wall of the Upper City followed the brow of the ridge from the S.E. angle of the Hill Sion, along a line nearly coincident with the aqueduct; while the main wall continued its easterly course down the steep slope of Sion, across the valley of the Tyropœon, not far from its mouth—a little above the Pool of Siloam—and then up the ridge Ophel, until it reached the brow of the eastern valley.

The further course of the wall to the eastern cloister of the Temple is equally obscure, as the several points specified in the description are not capable of identification by any other notices. These are the Pool of Solomon and a place called Ophla, in the description already cited, to which

may be added, from an incidental notice, the Basilica of Grapte or Monobazus.

The *Pool of Solomon* has been sometimes identified with the Fountain of the Virgin, from which the Pool of Siloam is supplied, and sometimes with that very pool. Both solutions are unsatisfactory, for Siloam would scarcely be mentioned a second time in the same passage under another name, and the fountain in question cannot, with any propriety, be called a pool.

The place called *Ophla*—in Scripture *Ophel*—is commonly supposed to be the southern spur of the Temple Mount, a narrow rocky ridge extending down to Siloam. But it is more certain that it is used in a restricted sense in this passage, than that it is ever extended to the whole ridge. It was apparently a large fortified building, to the S. of the Temple, connected with an outlying tower, and probably situated near the southern extremity of the present area of the Mosque of Omar.

2. *The Second Wall, and the Lower City.*—The account of the second wall in Josephus is very meagre. He merely says that it began at the Gate Gennath, a place in the old wall; and, after encompassing the Lower City, had its termination at the Fortress Antonia.

There is here no clue to the position of the Gate Gennath. It is, however, quite certain that it was between the Hippic Tower and the Xystus: and the N.W. angle of the Upper City was occupied by the

extensive palace of Herod the Great, and its imposing towers stood on the N. front of this old wall, where a rocky crest rose to the height of 30 cubits, which would of course preclude the possibility of an exit from the city for some distance to the E. of the tower. Other incidental notices make it clear that there was a considerable space between the third and second wall at their southern quarter, comparatively free from buildings, and, consequently, a considerable part of the N. wall of the Upper City unprotected by the second wall.

There is the head of an old archway still existing above a heap of ruins, at a point about half-way between the Hippic Tower and the N.W. angle of Mount Sion, where a slight depression in that hill brings it nearly to a level with the declivity to the N. This would afford a good starting-point for the second wall, traces of which may still be discovered in a line N. of this, quite to the Damascus Gate, where are two chambers of ancient and very massive masonry, which appear to have flanked an old gate of the second wall at its weakest part, where it crossed the valley of the Cheesemakers. From this gate, the second wall probably followed the line of the present city wall to a point near the Gate of Herod, now blocked up; whence it was carried along the brow of the hill to the N.E. angle of the Fortress Antonia, which occupied a considerable space on the N.W. of the Temple area.

3. *The Third Wall, and the New City.*—The third

wall, which enclosed a very considerable space to the N. of the Old City, was the work of Herod Agrippa the Elder, and was only commenced about thirty years before the destruction of Jerusalem, and never completed according to the original design, in consequence of the jealousy of the Roman government. The following is Josephus's account: "This third wall Agrippa drew round the super-added city, which was all exposed. It commenced at the Tower Hippicus, from whence it extended to the northern quarter, as far as the Tower Psephinus; then, passing opposite to the Monuments of Helena, and being produced through the Royal Caves, it bent, at the angular tower, by the monument called the Fuller's, and, joining the old wall, terminated at the valley of the Kedron."

(1) As the site of the Hippic Tower has been already fixed, the first point to be noticed in this third wall is the *Psephine Tower*, which, Josephus informs us, was the most wonderful part of this great work, situated at its N.W. quarter, over against Hippicus, octagonal in form, 70 cubits in height, commanding a view of Arabia towards the E., of the Mediterranean towards the W., and of the utmost limits of the Hebrew possessions.

(2) The next point mentioned is the *Monuments of Helena*, which, we are elsewhere told, were three pyramids, situated at a distance of 3 stadia from the city. Notwithstanding repeated notices of the sepulchral monuments of the Queen of Adiabene, it

is not now possible to fix their position with any degree of certainty, some archæologists assigning them to the Tombs of the Kings, others to the Tombs of the Martyrs, about three-quarters of a mile to the W. of the former. A point half-way between these two monuments would seem to answer better to the incidental notices of the monuments, and they may with great probability be fixed to a rocky court on the right of the road to *Nebi Samwil*, where there are several excavated tombs. Opposite the Monuments of Helena was the Gate of the Women in the third wall, which is mentioned more than once, and must have been between the Nablus road and the Psephine Tower.

(3) *The Royal Caves* are the next point mentioned on the third wall. They are, doubtless, identical with the remarkable and extensive excavations still called the Tombs of the Kings, most probably the same which are elsewhere called the Monument of Herod, and, from the character of their decorations, may very well be ascribed to the Herodian period.

(4) The Fuller's monument is the last-mentioned point on the new wall, and as an angular tower occupied this site, the monument must have been at the N.E. angle of the New City; probably one of the many rock graves cut in the perpendicular face of the Valley of Jehoshaphat. From this N.E. angle the third wall followed the brow of the Valley of Jehoshaphat until it reached the wall of the Outer Temple at its N.E. angle.

THE TEMPLE MOUNT

The Temple Mount, called in Scripture the Mountain of the Lord's House, and Moriah, is situated at the S.E. of the city, and is easily identified with the site of the Dome of the Mosque in modern Jerusalem. It was originally a third hill of the Old City, over against Acra, but separated from it by a broad ravine, which, however, was filled up by the Asmonæan princes, so that these two hills became one, and are generally so reckoned by the historian.

1. *The Outer Court.*—The Temple, in the widest signification of the word, consisted of two courts, one within the other, though the inner one is sometimes subdivided, and distributed into four other courts. The area of the Outer Court was in great part artificial, for the natural level space on the summit of the mount being found too confined for the Temple, with its surrounding chambers, courts, and cloisters, was gradually increased by mechanical expedients. This extension was commenced by Solomon, who raised from the depth of the eastern valley a wall of enormous stones, bound together with lead, within which he raised a bank of earth, to a level with the native rock. On this was erected a cloister, which, with its successors, always retained the name of "Solomon's Porch." This process of enlarging the court by artificial embankments was

continued by successive kings; but particularly by Herod the Great, who, when he reconstructed the Temple proper, enlarged the Outer Court to double its former size, and adorned it with stately cloisters.

2. *The Inner Court.* — The Inner Temple was separated from the Outer by a stone wall 3 cubits in height, on which stood pillars at equal distances, with inscriptions, in Greek and Latin, prohibiting aliens from access. To this court there was an ascent of fourteen steps, then a level space of 10 cubits, and then a further ascent of five steps to the gates, of which there were four on the N. and S. sides, and two on the E., but none on the W., where stood the Sanctuary.

The place of the Altar is determined with the utmost precision by the existence in the Sacred Rock of the Moslems, under their venerated dome, of the very cesspool and drain of the Jewish altar, which furnishes a key to the restoration of the whole Temple.

The Altar was 32 cubits square at its base, but gradually contracted, so that its hearth was only 24 cubits square. It was 15 cubits high, and had an ascent by an inclined plane on the S. side, 32 cubits long and 16 wide.

Between the Altar and the porch of the Temple was a space of 22 cubits, rising in a gentle ascent by steps to the vestibule, the door of which was 40 cubits high and 20 wide. The total length of the

Holy House itself was only 100 cubits, and this was subdivided into three parts: the Pronaus 11, the Sanctuary 40, the Holy of Holies 20, allowing 29 cubits for the partition walls and a small chamber behind (*i.e.* W. of) the Most Holy place. The total width of the building was 70 cubits; of which the Sanctuary only occupied 20, the remainder being distributed into side chambers, in three stories, assigned to various uses. The Pronaus was, however, 30 cubits wider, 15 on the N. and 15 on the S., giving it a total length of 100 cubits, which, with a width of only 11 cubits, must have presented the proportions of a Narthex in a Byzantine church. Its interior height was 90 cubits, and, while the chambers on the sides of the Temple rose only to the height of 60 cubits, there was an additional story of 40 cubits above the Sanctuary, also occupied by chambers, rising into a clerestory of the same elevation as the vestibule.

The front of the Temple was plated with gold, and reflected back the beams of the rising sun with dazzling effect; and, where it was not encrusted with gold, it was exceedingly white. Some of the stones of which it was constructed were 45 cubits long, 5 deep, and 6 wide.

E. of the Altar was the Court of the Priests, 135 cubits long and 11 wide; and, E. of that again, was the Court of Israel, of the same dimensions. E. of this was the Court of the Women, 135 cubits square, considerably below the level of the former,

to which there was an ascent of 15 semicircular steps to the magnificent gates of Corinthian brass, 50 cubits in height, with doors of 40 cubits, so ponderous that they could with difficulty be shut by 20 men, the spontaneous opening of which was one of the portents of the approaching destruction of the Temple, mentioned by Josephus and repeated by Tacitus.

We must now notice the Acropolis, which occupied the N.W. angle of the Temple enclosure, and which was, says the historian, the fortress of the Temple, as the Temple was of the city. Its original name was Baris, until Herod the Great, having greatly enlarged and beautified it, changed its name to Antonia, in honour of his friend Mark Antony. It combined the strength of a castle with the magnificence of a palace, and was like a city in extent—comprehending within its walls not only spacious apartments, but courts and camping ground for soldiers. It was situated on an elevated rock, which was faced with slabs of smooth stone, upon which was raised a breastwork of 3 cubits high, within which was the building, rising to a height of 40 cubits. It had turrets at its four corners, three of them 50 cubits high, but that at the S.E. angle was 70 cubits, and commanded a view of the whole Temple.

The fortress was protected towards Bezetha by an artificial fosse, so as to prevent its foundations from being assailed from that quarter.

It is certain, from several passages, that the Fortress Antonia did not cover the whole of the northern front of the Temple area; and, as the second wall, that encircled the Lower City, ended at the fortress, it is clear that this wall could not have coincided with the modern wall at the N.E. quarter of the modern city. It is demonstrable, from several allusions and historical notices, that there must have been a considerable space between the second and third wall on the northern front of the Temple area.

MARATHON

The plain of Marathon is open to a bay of the sea on the E., and is shut in on the opposite side by the heights of Brilessus (subsequently called Pentelicus) and Diacria, which send forth roots extending to the sea, and bounding the plain to the N. and S. The principal shelter of the bay is afforded by a long rocky promontory to the N., anciently called *Cynosura* and now *Stómi*. The plain is about 6 miles in length and half that breadth in its broadest part. It is somewhat in the form of a half-moon, the inner curve of which is bounded by the bay, and the outer by the range of mountains already described.

There are four roads leading out of the plain.

1. One runs along the coast by the south-western extremity of the plain. Here the plain of Marathon opens into a narrow maritime plain, 3 miles in length, where the mountains fall so gradually towards the sea as to present no very defensible impediment to the communication between the Marathonian and the Mesogæa. The road afterwards passes through the valley between Pentelicus and Hymettus, through the ancient demus of Pallene. This is the most level road to Athens, and the only one practicable for carriages. It was the one by which Pisistratus marched to Athens after landing at Marathon.
2. The second road runs through

the pass of *Vraná*, so called from a small village of this name, situated in the southern of the two valleys, which branch off from the interior of the plain. This road leads through Cephisia into the northern part of the plain of Athens. 3. The third road follows the vale of *Marathóna*, the northern of the two valleys already named, in which lies the village of the same name, the largest in the district. The two valleys are separated from one another by a hill called *Kotróni*, very rugged, but of no great height. This third road leads to Aphidna, from which the plain of Athens may also be reached. 4. The fourth road leaves the plain on the N.E. by a narrow pass between the northern marsh and a round naked rocky height called *Mt. Koráki* or *Stavrokoráki*. It leads to Rhamnus; and at the entrance of the pass stands the village of *Lower Súli*.

Three places in the Marathonian district particularly retain vestiges of ancient demi. 1. *Vraná*, which Leake supposes to be the site of the demus of Marathon. It lies upon a height fortified by the ravine of a torrent, which descends into the plain after flowing between *Mts. Argaliki* and *Aforismó*, which are parts of Mt. Brilessus or Pentelicus.

2. There are several fragments of antiquity situated at the head of the valley of *Marathóna* at a spot called *Inói*, which is no doubt the site of the ancient *Enæ*, one of the four demi of the district.

3. There are also evident remains of an ancient demus situated upon an insulated height in the

plain of *Súli*, near the entrance of the pass leading out of the Marathonian plain to *Súli*. These ruins are probably those of *Tricorythus*, the situation of which agrees with the order of the maritime demi in Strabo, where *Tricorythus* immediately precedes *Rhamnus*.

The site of *Probalinthus* is uncertain, but it should probably be placed at the S.W. extremity of the Marathonian plain. This might be inferred from Strabo's enumeration, who mentions first *Probalinthus*, then *Marathon*, and lastly *Tricorythus*. Between the southern marsh and *Mt. Argaliki* there are foundations of buildings at a place called *Valari*, which is, perhaps, a corruption of *Probalinthus*.

The principal monument in the Marathonian plain was the tumulus erected to the 192 Athenians who were slain in the battle, and whose names were inscribed upon ten pillars, one for each tribe, placed upon the tomb. There was also a second tumulus for the *Platæans* and slaves, and a separate monument to *Miltiades*. All these monuments were seen by *Pausanias* 600 years after the battle. The tumulus of the Athenians still exists. It stands in the centre of the plain, about half a mile from the sea-shore.

The exact ground occupied by the Greek and Persian armies at the battle of Marathon can only be a matter of conjecture. Col. Leake supposes that the Athenian camp was in the valley of *Vraná* near its opening into the plain; that on the day of

battle the Athenian line extended from a little in front of the Heracleum, at the foot of *Mt. Argaliki*, to the bend of the river of *Marathóna*, below the village of *Seféri*; and that the Persians, who were 8 stadia in front of them, had their right resting on *Mt. Koráki*, and their left extending to the southern marsh, which prevented them from having a front much greater than that of the Athenians. When the Persians defeated the Athenian centre, they pursued the latter up one or both of the two valleys on either side of *Mt. Kotróni*, since Herodotus says that the pursuit continued quite into the interior. Nearly at the same time the Persian left and right were defeated; but instead of pursuing them, the Athenians returned towards the field to the aid of their own centre. The Persian right fled towards the narrow pass leading into the plain of Tricorythus; and here numbers were forced into the marsh, as Pausanias relates.

MYCENÆ (sometimes MYCENE)

One of the most ancient towns in Greece, and celebrated as the residence of Agamemnon. It is situated at the north-eastern extremity of the plain of Argos upon a rugged height, which is shut in by two commanding summits of the range of moun-

tains which borders this side of the Argeian plain. From its retired position it is described by Homer as situated in a recess of the Argeian land. The position was one of great importance. In the first place it commanded the upper part of the great Argeian plain, which spread out under its walls towards the W. and S.; and secondly the most important roads from the Corinthian gulf, the roads from Phlius, Nemea, Cleonæ, and Corinth, unite in the mountains above Mycenæ, and pass under the height upon which the city stands.

The ruins of Mycenæ are still very extensive, and, with the exception of those of Tiryns, are more ancient than those of any other city in Greece. They belong to a period long antecedent to all historical records, and may be regarded as the genuine relics of the heroic age.

Mycenæ consisted of an Acropolis and a lower town, each defended by a wall. The Acropolis was situated on the summit of a steep hill, projecting from a higher mountain behind it. The lower town lay on the south-western slope of the hill, on either side of which runs a torrent from E. to W. The Acropolis is in form of an irregular triangle, of which the base fronts the S.W., and the apex the E. On the southern side the cliffs are almost precipitous, overhanging a deep gorge; but on the northern side the descent is less steep and rugged. The summit of the hill is rather more than 1000 feet in length, and around the edge the ruined walls of the Acro-

polis still exist in their entire circuit, with the exception of a small open space above the precipitous cliff on the southern side, which perhaps was never defended by a wall. The walls are more perfect than those of any other fortress in Greece; in some places they are 15 or 20 feet high. They are built of the dark-coloured limestone of the surrounding mountains. Some parts of the walls are built, like those of Tiryns, of huge blocks of stone of irregular shape, no attempt being made to fit them into one another, and the gaps being filled up with smaller stones. But the greater part of the walls consists of polygonal stones, skilfully hewn and fitted to one another, and their faces cut so as to give the masonry a smooth appearance. The walls also present, in a few parts, a third species of masonry, in which the stones are constructed of blocks of nearly quadrangular shape; this is the case in the approach to the Gate of Lions.

The chief gate of the Acropolis is at the N.W. angle of the wall. It stands at right angles to the adjoining wall of the fortress, and is approached by a passage 50 feet long and 30 wide, formed by that wall and by another wall exterior to it. The opening of the gateway widens from the top downwards; but at least two-thirds of its height is now buried in ruins. The width at the top of the door is $9\frac{1}{2}$ feet. This door was formed of two massive uprights, covered with a third block, 15 feet long, 4 feet wide, and 6 feet 7 inches high in the middle, but diminish-

ing at the two ends. Above this block is a triangular gap in the masonry of the wall, formed by an oblique approximation of the side courses of stone, continued from each extremity of the lintel to an apex above its centre. The vacant space is occupied by a block of stone, 10 feet high, 12 broad, and 2 thick, upon the face of which are sculptured two lions in low relief, standing on their hind-legs, upon either side of a covered pillar, upon which they rest their forefeet. The column becomes broader towards the top, and is surmounted with a capital, formed of a row of four circles, enclosed between two parallel fillets. The heads of the animals are gone, together with the apex of the cone that surmounted the column.

Besides the great Gate of Lions, there was a smaller gate or postern on the northern side of the Acropolis, the approach to which was fortified in the same manner as that leading to the great gate. It is constructed of three great stones, and is 5 feet 4 inches wide at the top.

Near the Gate of Lions the wall of the lower city may be traced, extending from N. to S. In the lower town are four subterraneous buildings, which are evidently the same as those described by Pausanias, in which the Atreidæ deposited their treasures. Of these the largest, called by the learned the "Treasury of Atreus," is in nearly a perfect state of preservation. It is approached by a passage now in ruins, and contains two chambers. The

passage leads into a large chamber of a conical form, about 50 feet in width and 40 in height; and in this chamber there is a doorway leading into a small interior apartment. There are remains of a second subterraneous building near the Gate of Lions; and those of the two others are lower down the hill towards the W.

OLYMPIA

The Temple and Sacred Grove of Zeus Olympius, situated at a small distance W. of Pisa in Peloponnesus. It originally belonged to Pisa, and the plain in which it stood was called in more ancient times the plain of Pisa; but after the destruction of this city by the Eleans in 572 B.C., the name of Olympia was extended to the whole district. Besides the Temple of Zeus Olympius, there were several other sacred edifices and public buildings in the Sacred Grove and its immediate neighbourhood; but there was no distinct town of Olympia.

The plain of Olympia is open towards the sea on the W., but is surrounded on every other side by hills of no great height, yet in many places abrupt and precipitous. Their surface presents a series of sandy cliffs of light yellow colour, covered with the pine, ilex, and other evergreens. On entering the

valley from the W., the most conspicuous object is a bold and nearly insulated eminence rising on the N. from the level plain in the form of an irregular cone. This is *Mt. Cronius*, or the hill of Cronus, which is frequently noticed by Pindar and other ancient writers. The hills which bound the plain on the S. are higher than the Cronian ridge, and, like the latter, are covered with evergreens, with the exception of one bare summit, distant about half a mile from the Alpheus. This was the ancient *Typæus*, from which women, who frequented the Olympic games, or crossed the river on forbidden days, were condemned to be hurled headlong. Another range of hills closes the vale of Olympia to the E., at the foot of which runs the rivulet of *Mirāka*. On the W. the vale was bounded by the *Cladeus*, which flowed from N. to S. along the side of the Sacred Grove, and fell into the Alpheus. This river rises at *Lala* in Mt. Pholoë. The Alpheus, which flows along the southern edge of the plain, constantly changes its course, and has buried beneath the new alluvial plain, or carried into the river, all the remains of buildings and monuments which stood in the southern part of the Sacred Grove.

Olympia lay partly within and partly outside of the Sacred Grove. This Sacred Grove bore from the most ancient times the name of *Altis*. It was adorned with trees, and in its centre there was a grove of planes. On the W. it ran along the Cladeus; on the S. its direction may be traced by a terrace

raised above the Alpheus; on the E. it was bounded by the Stadium. There were several gates in the wall, but the principal one, through which all the processions passed, was situated in the middle of the western side, and was called the Pompic Entrance. From this gate, a road, called the Pompic Way, ran across the Altis, and entered the Stadium by a gateway on the eastern side.

1. The *Olympicum*, *Olympium*, or Temple of Zeus Olympius. An oracle of the Olympian god existed on this spot from the most ancient times, and here a temple was doubtless built, even before the Olympic games became a Pan-Hellenic festival. But after the conquest of Pisa and the surrounding cities by the Eleans in 572 B.C., the latter determined to devote the spoils of the conquered cities to the erection of a new and splendid temple of the Olympian god. The architect was Libon of Elis. The temple was not, however, finished till nearly a century afterwards, at the period when the Attic school of art was supreme in Greece, and the Parthenon on the Athenian Acropolis had thrown into the shade all previous works of art. Shortly after the dedication of the Parthenon, the Eleans invited Phidias and his school of artists to remove to Elis, and adorn the Olympian temple in a manner worthy of the king of the gods. Phidias probably remained at Olympia for four or five years from about 437 B.C. to 434 or 433. The colossal statue of Zeus in the cella and the figures in the pediments of the temple

were executed by Phidias and his associates. The pictorial embellishments were the work of his relative Panænus. The temple stood in the southwestern portion of the Altis, to the right hand of the Pompic Entrance.

2. The *Pelopium* stood opposite the temple of Zeus, on the other side of the Pompic Way. Its position is defined by Pausanias, who says that it stood to the right of the entrance into the temple of Zeus and to the north of that building. It was an enclosure, containing trees and statues, having an opening to the W.

3. The *Heræum* was the most important temple in the Altis after that of Zeus. It was also a Doric peripteral building. The two most remarkable monuments in the Heræum were the table, on which were placed the garlands prepared for the victors in the Olympic contests, and the celebrated chest of Cypselus, covered with figures in relief.

4. The *Great Altar of Zeus* is described by Pausanias as equidistant from the Pelopium and the Heræum, and as being in front of them both. The total height of the altar was 22 feet. It had two platforms, of which the upper was made of the cinders of the thighs sacrificed on this and other altars.

5. The *Column of Œnomaus* stood between the great altar and the temple of Zeus. It was said to have belonged to the house of Œnomaus, and to have been the only part of the building which escaped when it was burnt by lightning.

6. The *Metroum*, or temple of the Mother of the Gods, was a large Doric building, situated within the Altis.

7. The *Prytaneum* is placed by Pausanias within the Altis, near the Gymnasium, which was outside the sacred enclosure.

8. The *Bouleuterion*, or Council-House, seems to have been near the Prytaneum.

9. The *Philippeum*, a circular building, erected by Philip after the battle of Chæronea, was to the left in proceeding from the entrance of the Altis to the Prytaneum.

10. The *Theecoleon*, a building belonging to the superintendents of the sacrifices.

11. The *Hippodamium*, named from Hippodamea, who was buried here, was within the Altis near the Pompic Way.

12. *The Temple of the Olympian Ilithyia* (Lucina) appears to have stood on the neck of Mt. Cronius.

13. *The Temple of the Olympian Aphrodite* was near that of Ilithyia.

14. The *Thesauri* or *Treasuries*, ten in number, were, like those of Delphi, built by different cities, for the reception of their dedicatory offerings. They are described by Pausanias as standing to the N. of the Heræum at the foot of Mt. Cronius, upon a platform made of the stone poros.

15. *Zanes*, statues of Zeus, erected from the produce of fines levied upon athletæ, who had violated the regulations of the games. They stood upon a

stone platform at the foot of Mt. Cronius, to the left of a person going from the Metroum to the Stadium.

16. The *Studio of Phidias*, which was outside the Altis, and near the Pompic Entrance.

17. The *Leonidæum*, built by Leonidas, a native, was near the Studio of Phidias. Here the Roman magistrates were lodged in the time of Pausanias.

18. The *Gymnasium*, also outside the Altis, and near the northern entrance into it. Near the Gymnasium was (19) the *Palæstra*.

20 and 21. The *Stadium* and the *Hippodrome* were two of the most important sites at Olympia, as together they formed the place of exhibition for all the Olympic contests.

The Stadium is described by Pausanias as a mound of earth, upon which there was a seat for the Hellanodicæ, and over against it an altar of marble, on which sat the priestess of Demeter Chamyne to behold the games. There were two entrances into the Stadium, the Pompic and the Secret. The latter, through which the Hellanodicæ and the agonistæ entered, was near the Zanes; the former probably entered the area in front of the rectilinear extremity of the Stadium.

One side of the Hippodrome was longer than the other, and was formed by a mound of earth. There was a passage through this side leading out of the Hippodrome; and near the passage was a kind of circular altar, called Taraxippus, or the terrifier of

horses, because the horses were frequently seized with terror in passing it, so that chariots were broken. Beyond the Taraxippus were the terminal pillars, round which the chariots turned. On one of them stood a brazen statue of Hippodamea about to bind the tænia on Pelops after his victory. The other side of the Hippodrome was a natural height of no great elevation. On its extremity stood the Temple of Demeter Chamyne. The course of the Hippodrome appears to have been two diauli, or four stadia.

22. The *Theatre* is mentioned by Xenophon, but it does not occur in the description of Pausanias.

Besides the buildings already mentioned, there was a very large number of statues in every part of the Sacred Grove, many of which were made by the greatest masters of Grecian art.

POMPEII

An ancient city of Campania, situated on the coast of the beautiful gulf called the Crater or *Bay of Naples*, at the mouth of the river Sarnus, and immediately at the foot of Mt. Vesuvius. It was intermediate between Herculaneum and Stabiæ.

The famous eruption of Vesuvius in A.D. 79, buried Pompeii, as well as Herculaneum, under a dense bed of ashes and cinders. The loss of life in the former city was the greater, because the inhabitants

were assembled in the theatre at the time when the catastrophe took place.

The area occupied by the ancient city was an irregular oval, about 2 miles in circumference. It was surrounded by a wall, which is still preserved round the whole of the city, except on the side towards the sea. There were seven gates, the most considerable and ornamental of which was that which formed the entrance to the city by the high road from Herculaneum: the others have been called respectively the Gate of Vesuvius, the Gate of Capua, the Gate of Nola, the Gate of the Sarnus, the Gate of Stabiæ, and the Gate of the Theatres. The entrances to the town from the side of the sea had ceased to be gates, there being no longer any walls on that side. The walls were strengthened with an Agger or rampart, faced with masonry, and having a parapet or outer wall on its external front: they were further fortified at intervals with square towers, which in some parts occur regularly at about 100 yards from each other, in other parts are added much more sparingly.

The general plan of the city is very regular, and the greater part of the streets run in straight lines: but the principal line of street, which runs from the Gate of Herculaneum to the Forum, is an exception, being irregular and crooked as well as very narrow. Though it must undoubtedly have been one of the chief thoroughfares of the city, and the line followed by the high road from Capua, Neapolis, and Rome

itself, it does not exceed 12 or 14 feet in width, including the raised footpaths on each side, so that the carriage-way could only have admitted the passage of one vehicle at a time. Some of the other streets are broader; but few of them exceed 20 feet in width, and the widest yet found is only about 30. They are uniformly paved with large polygonal blocks of hard lava or basalt. The principal street was crossed, a little before it reached the Forum, by a long straight line of street which, passing by the Temple of Fortune, led direct to the Gate of Nola. In the angle formed by the two stood the public baths or Thermæ, and between these and the Temple of Fortune a short broad street led direct to the Forum, of which it seems to have formed the principal entrance. From the Forum two other parallel streets struck off in an easterly direction, which have been followed till they cross another main line of street that leads from the Gate of Vesuvius directly across the city to the gate adjoining the theatres. This last line crosses the street already noticed, leading from the Gate of Nola westward, and the two divide the whole city into four quarters, though of irregular size.

The *Forum* was situated in the S.W. quarter of the city, and was distant about 400 yards from the Gate of Herculaneum. As was commonly the case in ancient times, it was surrounded by the principal public buildings, and was evidently the centre of the life and movement of the city. The extent of

it was not, however, great; the actual open space (exclusive of the porticoes which surrounded it) did not exceed 160 yards in length by 35 in breadth, and a part of this space was occupied by the Temple of Jupiter. It was surrounded on three sides by a Grecian-Doric portico or colonnade, which appears to have been surmounted by a gallery or upper story, though no part of this is now preserved. It would seem that this portico had replaced an older arcade on the eastern side of the Forum, a portion of which still remains, so that this alteration was not yet completed when the catastrophe took place. At the N. end of the Forum, and projecting out into the open area, are the remains of an edifice which must have been much the most magnificent of any in the city. It is commonly known, with at least a plausible foundation, as the Temple of Jupiter; others dispute its being a temple at all, and have called it the Senaculum, or place of meeting of the local senate. It was raised on a *podium* or base of considerable elevation, and had a portico of six Corinthian columns in front. At the N.E. angle of the Forum, adjoining the Temple of Jupiter, stood an arch which appears to have been of a triumphal character, though now deprived of all its ornaments: it was the principal entrance to the Forum, and the only one by which it was accessible to carriages of any description. On the E. side of the Forum were four edifices, all unquestionably of a public character. The first (towards the N.) is

generally known as the Pantheon, from its having contained an altar in the centre, with twelve pedestals placed in a circle round it, which are supposed to have supported statues of the twelve chief gods. Next to this building is one which is commonly regarded as the Curia or Senaculum; it had a portico of fluted columns of white marble, which ranged with those of the general portico that surrounded the Forum. S. of this again is a building commonly called the Temple of Mercury, of small size and very irregular form. Between this and the street known as the Street of the Silversmiths, which issued from the Forum near its S.E. angle, was a large building which, as we learn from an inscription still existing, was erected by a female priestess named Eumachia. It consists of a large and spacious area (about 130 feet by 65) surrounded by a colonnade, and having a raised platform at the end with a semicircular recess similar to that usually found in a Basilica.

The S. end of the Forum was occupied by three buildings of very similar character, standing side by side, each consisting of a single hall with an apse or semicircular recess at the further extremity. The most probable opinion is that these were the courts of justice, in which the tribunals held their sittings. The western side of the Forum was principally occupied by a Basilica, and a large temple which is commonly called the Temple of Venus. The former is the largest building in Pompeii; it

is of an oblong form, 220 feet in length by 80 in breadth, and abutted endwise on the Forum, from which it was entered by a vestibule with five doorways. The roof was supported by a peristyle of 28 Ionic columns of large size, but built of brick, coated with stucco. There is a raised tribunal at the further end, but no apse, which is usually found in buildings of this class. Between this edifice and the temple is a street of greater width than usual, which extends from the Forum in a westerly direction, and probably communicated with the port. The Temple of Venus, on the N. side of this street, was an extensive building consisting of a peripteral temple with a small *cella*, elevated on a *podium* or basement, surrounded by a much more extensive portico, and the whole again enclosed by a wall, forming the *peribolus* or sacred enclosure. All parts of the building are profusely decorated with painting. The temple itself is Corinthian, but the columns of the portico seem to have been originally Doric, though afterwards clumsily transformed into Corinthian, or rather an awkward imitation of Corinthian. The buildings at the N.W. corner of the Forum are devoid of architectural character, and seem to have served as the public granaries and prisons.

The open area of the Forum was paved with broad slabs of a kind of marble, thus showing that it was never designed for the traffic of any kind of vehicles. It was adorned with numerous statues, the pedestals of which still remain: they are all of

white marble, but the statues themselves have uniformly disappeared.

Besides the temples which surrounded the Forum, the remains of four others have been discovered; three of which are situated in the immediate vicinity of the theatres. Of these the most interesting is one which stood a little to the S.W. of the great theatre, near the wall of the city, and which is evidently much more ancient than any of the other temples at Pompeii: it is of the Doric order and of pure Greek style, but of very ancient character. Unfortunately only the basement and a few capitals and other architectural fragments remain. It is commonly called the Temple of Hercules. It stood in an open area of considerable extent, and of a triangular form, surrounded on two sides by porticoes: but this area, which is commonly called a Forum, has been evidently constructed at a much later period, and with no reference to the temple, which is placed very awkwardly in relation to it. Another temple in the same quarter of the town, immediately adjoining the great theatre, is interesting because we learn with certainty from an inscription that it was consecrated to Isis, and had been rebuilt by N. Popidius Celsinus "from the foundations" after its overthrow in the great earthquake of A.D. 63. It is of a good style of architecture, but built chiefly of brick covered with stucco (only the capitals and shafts of the columns being of a soft stone), and is of small size. Like

most of the temples at Pompeii, it consists of a cella, raised on an elevated podium, and surrounded externally by a more extensive portico. Adjoining this temple was another, the smallest yet found at Pompeii, and in no way remarkable. It has been variously called the Temple of Æsculapius, and that of Jupiter and Juno.

The only temple which remains to be noticed is one situated about 60 yards N. of the Forum at the angle formed by the long main street leading to the Gate of Nola, with a short broad street which led from it direct to the Forum. This was the Temple of Fortune, as we learn from an inscription.

Pompeii possessed two Theatres and an Amphitheatre. The former were situated close together; the larger one being intended and adapted for theatrical performances properly so called; the smaller one serving as an Odeum, or theatre for music. Both are unquestionably of Roman date.

Adjoining the two theatres, and arranged so as to have a direct communication with both, is a large quadrangular court or area (183 feet long by 148 feet wide), surrounded on all sides by a Doric portico. On the W. of this, as well as of the great theatre, was the triangular area or forum in which the Greek temple was situated. The opening of this on the N., where it communicated with the street, was ornamented by a portico or Propylæum composed of eight Ionic columns of very elegant style,

but consisting of the common volcanic tufo, cased with stucco.

The Amphitheatre is situated at the distance of above 500 yards from the theatres, at the extreme S.E. angle of the city. It offers no very remarkable differences from other edifices of the same kind; its dimensions (430 feet by 335) are not such as to place it in the first rank even of provincial structures of the class; and from being in great part excavated out of the soil, it has not the imposing architectural character of the amphitheatres of Verona, Nemausus, or Pola. It had 24 rows of seats, and about 20,000 feet of sitting-room, so that it was adapted to receive at least 10,000 spectators.

The only public building which remains to be noticed is that of the Thermæ or Baths, which were situated in the neighbourhood of the Forum, adjoining the short street which led into it from the Temple of Fortune.

The streets were narrow, but with few exceptions straight and regular, and the houses were certainly low, seldom exceeding two stories in height; and even of these the upper story seems to have consisted only of inferior rooms, a kind of garrets, probably serving for the sleeping-rooms of slaves, and in some cases of the females of the family. It is only on the W. side of the city, where the ground slopes steeply towards the sea, that houses are found which consisted of three stories or more.

Externally the houses had little or nothing of an ornamental character; not a single instance has been found of a portico before a private house; and towards the street they presented either dead walls, with here and there a few small and scanty openings as windows, or ranges of shops, for the most part low and mean in character, even when they occupied (as was often the case) the front of dwellings of a superior description.

The style of decoration of these houses presents a very general uniformity of character. The walls are almost invariably ornamented with painting, the atrium and peristyle being decorated with columns; but these are composed only of a soft and coarse stone (volcanic tufo) covered with stucco. The floors are generally enriched with mosaics, some of which possess a very high degree of merit as works of art. The most beautiful yet discovered adorned the house known as the House of the Faun, from a bronze statue of a dancing Faun which was also found in it.

Outside the gate leading to Herculaneum, in a kind of suburb, stands a house of a different description, being a suburban villa of considerable extent, and adapted to have been the abode of a person of considerable wealth. From the greater space at command this villa comprises much that is not found in the houses within the town; among others a large court or garden (Xystus), a complete suite of private baths, etc. Between this villa and

the gate of the city are the remains of another villa, said to be on a larger scale and more richly decorated than the one just described; but its ruins, which were excavated in 1764, were filled up again, and are not now visible. The approach to the Gate of Herculaneum is bounded on both sides by rows of tombs or sepulchral monuments, extending with only occasional interruptions for above 400 yards. Many of them are on a very considerable scale, both of size and architectural character.

Besides the tombs and the two villas already noticed, there have been found the remains of shops and small houses outside the Gate of Herculaneum, and there would appear to have been on this side of the city a considerable suburb. We have as yet no evidence of the existence of any suburbs outside the other gates. It is evident that any estimate of the population of Pompeii must be very vague and uncertain; but still, from our accurate knowledge of the space it occupied, as well as the character of the houses, we may arrive at something like an approximation, and it seems certain that the population of the town itself could not have exceeded about 20,000 persons.

SALAMIS

An island lying between the western coast of Attica and the eastern coast of Megaris, and forming the southern boundary of the bay of Eleusis. It is separated from the coasts both of Attica and of Megaris by only a narrow channel. Its form is that of an irregular semicircle towards the W., with many small indentations along the coast. Its greatest length, from N. to S., is about 10 miles, and its width, in its broadest part, from E. to W., is a little more. Its length is correctly given by Strabo as from 70 to 80 stadia.

The old city of Salamis, the residence of the Telamonian Ajax, stood upon the southern side of the island towards Ægina.

When Salamis became an Athenian demus, a new city was built at the head of a bay upon the eastern side of the island, and opposite the Attic coast. In the time of Pausanias this city also had fallen into decay. There remained, however, a ruined agora and a temple of Ajax, containing a statue of the hero in ebony; also a temple of Artemis, the trophy erected in honour of the victory gained over the Persians, and a temple of Cychreus. Pausanias has not mentioned the statue of Solon, which was erected in the agora, with one hand covered by his mantle.

In Salamis there was a promontory *Sciradium*

containing a temple of the god of war, erected by Solon, because he there defeated the Megarians.

Budorum was the name of the western promontory of Salamis, and distant only 3 miles from Nisæa, the port of Megara. On this peninsula there was a fortress of the same name. In the attempt which the Peloponnesians made in 429 B.C. to surprise Piræus, they first sailed from Nisæa to the promontory of Budorum, and surprised the fortress; but after overrunning the island, they retreated without venturing to attack Piræus.

Salamis is chiefly memorable on account of the great battle fought off its coast, in which the Persian fleet of Xerxes was defeated by the Greeks, 480 B.C. The battle took place in the strait between the eastern part of the island and the coast of Attica. The Grecian fleet was drawn up in the small bay in front of the town of Salamis, and the Persian fleet opposite to them off the coast of Attica. The battle was witnessed by Xerxes from the Attic coast, who had erected for himself a lofty throne on one of the projecting declivities of Mt. Ægaleos.

SPARTA

The capital of Laconia, and the chief city of Peloponnesus. It was also called *Lacedæmon*, which was the original name of the country. Sparta stood at the upper end of the middle vale of the Eurotas, and upon the right bank of the river. The city was built upon a range of low hills, and upon an adjoining plain stretching S.E. to the river. These hills are offshoots of Mt. Taygetus, and rise almost immediately above the river. Ten stadia S. of the point where the Cœnus flows into the Eurotas, the latter river is divided into two arms by a small island overgrown with the oleander, where the foundations of an ancient bridge are visible. This is the most important point in the topography of the site of Sparta. Opposite to this bridge the range of hills rises upon which the ancient city stood; while a hollow way leads through them into the plain to *Magûla*, a village situated about half-way between *Mistrá* and the island of the Eurotas. Upon emerging from this hollow into the plain, there rises on the left hand a hill, the south-western side of which is occupied by the theatre. The centre of the building was excavated out of the hill; but the two wings

of the cavea were entirely artificial, being built of enormous masses of quadrangular stones. The extremities of the two wings are about 430 feet from one another, and the diameter or length of the orchestra is about 170 feet. There are traces of a wall around this hill, which also embraces a considerable part of the adjoining plain to the E.

This hill is the largest of all the Spartan heights, and is distinguished by the wall which surrounds it, and by containing traces of foundations of some ancient buildings. From it two smaller hills project towards the Eurotas, parallel to one another, and which may be regarded as portions of the larger hill. Upon the more southerly of the two there are considerable remains of a circular brick building. West of this building is a valley in the form of a horse-shoe, enclosed by walls of earth, and apparently a stadium, to which its length nearly corresponds.

To the N. of the hollow way leading from the bridge of the Eurotas to *Magúla* there is a small insulated hill, with a flat summit, but higher and more precipitous than the larger hill to the S. of this way.

The two hills above mentioned, N. and S. of this hollow way, formed the northern half of Sparta. The other portion of the city occupied the plain between the southern hill and the rivulet falling into the Eurotas.

The site of Sparta differs from that of almost all Grecian cities. Protected by the lofty ramparts of mountains, with which nature had surrounded their fertile valley, the Spartans were not obliged, like the other Greeks, to live within the walls of a city pent up in narrow streets, but continued to dwell in the midst of their plantations and gardens, in their original village trim. It was this rural freedom and comfort which formed the chief charm and beauty of Sparta.

It must not, however, be supposed that Sparta was destitute of handsome public buildings. The temples of the gods were built with great magnificence, and the spoils of the Persian wars were employed in the erection of a beautiful stoa in the Agora, with figures of Persians in white marble upon the columns, among which Pausanias admired the statues of Mardonius and Artemisia.

Sparta continued unfortified during the whole period of autonomous Grecian history; and it was first surrounded with walls in the Macedonian period. We learn from Polybius that its walls were 48 stadia in circumference.

It has been observed that Sparta resembled Rome in its site, comprehending a number of contiguous hills of little height or boldness of character. It also resembled Rome in being formed out of several earlier settlements, which existed before the Dorian conquest, and gradually coalesced with the later

city, which was founded in their midst. These earlier places were four in number, Pitane, Limnæ or Limnæum, Mesoa, and Cynosura, which were united by a common sacrifice to Artemis. Pitane was at the ford of the Eurotas, and consequently in the northern part of the city. It was the favourite and fashionable place of residence at Sparta. We are also told that Pitane was near the temple and stronghold of Issorium. Limnæ was situated upon the Eurotas, having derived its name from the marshy ground which once existed there; and as the Dromus occupied a great part of the lower level towards the southern extremity, it is probable that Limnæ occupied the northern. It is probable that Mesoa was in the S.E. part of the city, and Cynosura in the S.W.

In the midst of these separate quarters stood the Acropolis and the Agora, where the Dorian invaders first planted themselves.

The chief building on the Acropolis was the temple of Athena Chalciæcus, the tutelary goddess of the city. It was said to have been begun by Tyndareus, but was long afterwards completed by Gitiadas, who was celebrated as an architect, statuary, and poet. He caused the whole building to be covered with plates of bronze or brass, whence the temple was called the Brazen House, and the goddess received the surname of Chalciæcus. On the bronze plates there were represented in relief the labours of Hercules, the exploits of the Dioscuri, Hephæstus

releasing his mother from her chains, the Nymphs arming Perseus for his expedition against Medusa, the birth of Athena, and Amphitrite and Poseidon. Gitiadas also made a brazen statue of the goddess. The Brazen House stood in a sacred enclosure of considerable extent, surrounded by a stoa or colonnade, and containing several sanctuaries. There was a separate temple of Athena Ergane. Near the southern stoa was a temple of Zeus Cosmetas, and before it the tomb of Tyndareus; the western stoa contained two eagles, bearing two victories, dedicated by Lysander in commemoration of his victories over the Athenians. To the left of the Brazen House was a temple of the Muses; behind it a temple of Arcs Areia, with very ancient wooden statues; and to its right a very ancient statue of Zeus Hypatus, by Learchus of Rhegium, parts of which were fastened together with nails. Near the altar of the Brazen House stood two statues of Pausanias, and also statues of Aphrodite Ambologēra (delaying old age), and of the brothers Sleep and Death.

The Agora was a spacious place, surrounded with colonnades, from which the streets issued to the different quarters of the city. Here were the public buildings of the magistrates,—the council-house of the Gerusia and senate, and the offices of the Ephori, Nomophylaces, and Bidiæi. The most splendid building was the Persian stoa, which had been frequently repaired and enlarged, and was still perfect when Pausanias visited the city. The Agora con-

tained statues of Julius Cæsar and Augustus: in the latter was a brazen statue of the prophet Agias. There was a place called Chorus, marked off from the rest of the Agora, because the Spartan youths here danced in honour of Apollo at the festival of the Gymnopædia. This place was adorned with statues of the Pythian deities, Apollo, Artemis, and Leto; and near it were temples of Earth, of Zeus Agoræus, of Athena Agoræa, of Apollo, of Poseidon Asphaleus, and of Hera. In the Agora was a colossal statue representing the people of Sparta, and a temple of the Moeræ or Fates, near which was the tomb of Orestes. Near the tomb of Orestes was the statue of King Polydorus, whose effigy was used as the seal of the state. Here, also, was a Hermes Agoræus bearing Dionysus as a child, and the old Ephorea, where the Ephors originally administered justice, in which were the tombs of Epimenides the Cretan and of Aphareus the Æolian king.

The Agora was near the Acropolis. Lycurgus, it is said, when attacked by his opponents, fled for refuge from the Agora to the Acropolis; but was overtaken by a fiery youth, who struck out one of his eyes. At the spot where he was wounded, Lycurgus founded a temple of Optiletis or Ophthalmitis, which must have stood immediately above the Agora. Plutarch says that it lay within the *temenos* of the Brazen House; and Pausanias mentions it, in descending from the Acropolis, on the way to the so-called Alpium, beyond which was a

temple of Ammon, and probably also a temple of Artemis Cnagia. The Agora may be placed in the great hollow E. of the Acropolis. Its position is most clearly marked by Pausanias, who, going westwards from the Agora, arrived immediately at the theatre, after passing only the tomb of Brasidas.

The principal street, leading out of the Agora, was named Aphetais. It ran towards the southern wall, through the most level part of the city, and was bordered by a succession of remarkable monuments. First came the house of King Polydorus, named Booneta, because the state purchased it from his widow for some oxen. Next came the office of the Bidiaei, who originally had the inspection of the race-course; and opposite was the temple of Athena Celeuthea, with a statue of the goddess dedicated by Ulysses. Lower down the Aphetais occurred the *heroa* of Iops, Amphiaras, and Lelex,—the sanctuary of Poseidon Tænarius,—a statue of Athena, dedicated by the Tarentini,—the place called Hellenium, so called because the Greeks are said to have held counsel there either before the Persian or the Trojan wars,—the tomb of Talthybius,—an altar of Apollo Acritas,—a place sacred to the earth named Gaseptum,—a statue of Apollo Maleates,—and close to the city walls the temple of Dictynna, and the royal sepulchres of the Eurypontidae. Pausanias then returns to the Hellenium, probably to the other side of the Aphetais, where he mentions

a sanctuary of Arsinoë; then a temple of Artemis near the so-called Phruria, which were perhaps the temporary fortifications thrown up before the completion of the city walls; next the tombs of the Iamidæ, the Elean prophets,—sanctuaries of Maro and Alpheus, who fell at Thermopylæ,—the temple of Zeus Tropæus, built by the Dorians after conquering the Achæan inhabitants of Laconia, and especially the Amyclæi,—the temple of the mother of the gods,—and the *heroa* of Hippolytus and Aulon. The Aphetais upon quitting the city joined the great Hyacinthian road which led to the Amyclæum.

The next most important street leading from the Agora ran in a south-easterly direction. It is usually called Scias. Near the Scias was a round structure, containing statues of the Olympian Zeus and Aphrodite; next came the tombs of Cynortas, Castor, Idas, and Lynceus, and a temple of Core Sotira. The other buildings along this street or in this direction, if there was no street, were the temple of Apollo Carneus,—a statue of Apollo Aphetæus,—a quadrangular place surrounded with colonnades, where small-wares were anciently sold—an altar sacred to Zeus, Athena, and the Dioscuri, all surnamed Ambulii. Opposite was the place called Colona and the temple of Dionysus Colonatas. Near the Colona was the temple of Zeus Euanemus. On a neighbouring hill was the temple of the Argive Hera, and the temple of Hera Hyperchiria, con-

taining an ancient wooden statue of Aphrodite Hera. To the right of this hill was a statue of Hetœmocles, who had gained the victory in the Olympic games.

After describing the streets leading from the Agora to the S. and S.E., Pausanias next mentions a third street, running westward from the Agora. It led past the theatre to the royal sepulchres of the Agiadæ. In front of the theatre were the tombs of Pausanias and Leonidas.

After proceeding to the tomb of Tænarus, and the sanctuaries of Poseidon Hippiocurius and the Æginetan Artemis, Pausanias returns to the Lesche, near which was the temple of Artemis Issoria, also called Limnæa. Pausanias next mentions the temples of Thetis, of Demeter Chthonia, of Sarapis, and of the Olympian Zeus. He then reached the Dromus, which was used in his day as a place for running. It extended along the stream southwards, and contained gymnasia. The Roman amphitheatre and the stadium were included in the Dromus. In the Dromus was a statue of Hercules, near which, but outside the Dromus, was the house of Menelaus. Proceeding from the Dromus occurred the temples of the Dioscuri, of the Graces, of Ilithyia, of Apollo Carneius, and of Artemis Hegemone; on the right of the Dromus was a statue of Asclepius Agnitas; at the beginning of the Dromus there were statues of the Dioscuri Aphetarii; and a little further the *heroum* of Alcon and the temple of Poseidon Domatites.

South of the Dromus was a broader level, which was called Platanistas, from the plane-trees with which it was thickly planted. It is described as a round island, formed by streams of running water, and was entered by two bridges, on each of which there was a statue of Hercules at one end and of Lycurgus at the other. The *heroum* of Cynisca, the first female who conquered in the chariot-race in the Olympic games, stood close to the Plataniston, which was bordered upon one side by a colonnade. Behind this colonnade there were several heroic monuments, among which were those of Alcimus, Enaræphorus, of Dorceus, with the fountain Dorceia, and of Sebrus. Near the latter was the sepulchre of the poet Alcman; this was followed by the sanctuary of Helena and that of Hercules, with the monument of Cœonus. The temple of Hercules was close to the city walls. Since the poet Alcman, whose tomb was in this district, is described as a citizen of Mesoa, it is probable that this was the position of Mesoa, the name of which might indicate a tract lying between two rivers.

After reaching the S.E. extremity of the city, Pausanias returns to the Dromus. Here he mentions two ways: the one to the right leading to a temple of Athena Axiopœnus, and the other to the left to another temple of Athena, founded by Theras, near which was a temple of Hipposthenes, and an ancient wooden statue of Enyalius in fetters. He then describes the painted Lesche, with its surround-

ing *heroa* of Cadmus, Œolycus, Ægeus, and Amphilo-chus, and the temple of Hera Ægophagus. He afterwards returns to the theatre, and mentions the different monuments in its neighbourhood; among which were a temple of Poseidon Genethlius, *heroa* of Cleodacus and Œbalus, a temple of Asclepius, near the Booneta, with the *heroum* of Teleclus on its left; on a height not far distant, an ancient temple of Aphrodite armed, upon an upper story of which was a second temple of Aphrodite Morpho; in its neighbourhood was a temple of Hilæira and Phœbe, containing their statues, and an egg suspended from the roof, said to have been that of Leda. Pausanias next mentions a house, named Chiton, in which was woven the robe for the Amyclæan Apollo; and on the way towards the city gates the *heroa* of Chilon and Athenæus. Near the Chiton was the house of Phormion, who hospitably entertained the Dioscuri when they entered the city as strangers.

Pausanias next mentions a temple of Lycurgus; behind it the tomb of his son Eucosmus, and an altar of Lathria and Alexandra: opposite the temple were monuments of Theopompus and Eurybiades, and the *heroum* of Astrabacus. In the place called Limnæum stood the temples of Artemis Orthia and Leto. This temple of Artemis Orthia was the common place of meeting for the four villages of Pitane, Mesoa, Cynosura, and Limnæ. Limnæ was partly in the city and partly in the suburbs.

SYRACUSÆ

The most powerful and important of all the Greek cities in Sicily, situated on the E. coast of the island, about midway between Catana and Cape Pachynus.

Syracuse was situated on a table-land or tabular hill, forming the prolongation of a ridge which branches off from the more elevated table-land of the interior, and projects quite down to the sea, between the bay known as the Great Harbour of Syracuse and the more extensive bay which stretches on the N. as far as the peninsula of *Thapsus* or *Magnisi*. The broad end of the kind of promontory thus formed, which abuts upon the sea for a distance of about $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles, may be considered as the base of a triangular plateau which extends for above 4 miles into the interior, having its apex formed by the point now called *Mongibellisi*, which was occupied by the ancient fort of *Euryalus*. This communicates by a narrow ridge with the table-land of the interior, but is still a marked point of separation, and was the highest point of the ancient city, from whence the table-land slopes very gradually to the sea. Though of small elevation, this plateau is bounded on all sides by precipitous banks or cliffs, varying in height, but only accessible at a few points. It may be considered as naturally divided into two portions by a slight valley or depression running across it from N. to S., about a mile from the sea:

of these the upper or triangular portion was known as *Epipolæ*, the eastern portion adjoining the sea bore the name of *Achradina*, which thus forms in some degree a distinct and separate plateau, though belonging, in fact, to the same mass with *Epipolæ*.

The S.E. angle of the plateau is separated from the Great Harbour by a small tract of low and level ground, opposite to which lies the island of *Ortygia*, a low islet about a mile in length, extending across the mouth of the Great Harbour, and originally divided by only a narrow strait from the mainland, whilst its southern extremity was separated from the nearest point of the headland of *Plemmyrium* by an interval of about 1200 yards, forming the entrance into the Great Harbour. This last was a spacious bay, of above 5 miles in circumference; thus forming a very nearly land-locked basin of a somewhat oval form, which afforded a secure shelter to shipping in all weather. But between the island of *Ortygia*, and the mainland to the N. of it, was a deep bight or inlet, forming what was called the Lesser Port or *Portus Laccius*, which, though very inferior to the other, was still equal to the ordinary requirements of ancient commerce.

S. of the Great Harbour again rose the peninsular promontory of *Plemmyrium*, forming a table-land bounded, like that on the N. of the bay, by precipitous escarpments and cliffs, though of no great elevation. This table-land was prolonged by an-

other plateau at a somewhat lower level, bounding the southern side of the Great Harbour, and extending from thence towards the interior. On its N.E. angle and opposite to the heights of Epipolæ, stood the temple of Jupiter Olympius, or the *Olympieum*, overlooking the low marshy tract which intervenes between the two table-lands, and through which the river Anapus finds its way to the sea. The beautiful stream of the *Cyane* rises in a source about $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile to the N. of the Olympieum, and joins its waters with those of the Anapus almost immediately below the temple. From the foot of the hill crowned by the latter extends a broad tract of very low marshy ground, extending along the inner side of the Great Harbour to the walls of the city itself. This marshy tract, which is above a mile in breadth, extends towards the interior for a considerable distance, till it is met by the precipitous escarpments of the great table-land of the interior. The proximity of these marshes must always have been prejudicial to the healthiness of the situation. But in every other respect the situation was admirable; and the prosperity of Syracuse was doubtless owing in a great degree to natural as well as political causes. It was, moreover, celebrated for the mildness and serenity of its climate, it being generally asserted that there was no day on which the sun was not visible at Syracuse.

The topographical description of Syracuse as it existed in the days of its greatness cannot better be

introduced than in the words of Cicero, who has described it in unusual detail. "You have often heard (says he) that Syracuse was the largest of all Greek cities, and the most beautiful of all cities. And it is so indeed. For it is both strong by its natural situation and striking to behold, from whatever side it is approached, whether by land or sea. It has two ports, as it were, enclosed within the buildings of the city itself, so as to combine with it from every point of view, which have different and separate entrances, but are united and conjoined together at the opposite extremity. The junction of these separates from the mainland the part of the town which is called the Island, but this is reunited to the continent by a bridge across the narrow strait which divides them. So great is the city that it may be said to consist of four cities, all of them of very large size; one of which is that which I have already mentioned, the Island, which is surrounded by the two ports, while it projects towards the mouth and entrance of each of them. In it is the palace of King Hieron, which is now the customary residence of our prætors. It contains, also, several sacred edifices, but two in particular, which far surpass the others, one a temple of Diana, the other of Minerva, which before the arrival of Verres was most highly adorned. At the extremity of this island is a fountain of fresh water, which bears the name of Arethusa, of incredible magnitude, and full of fish: this would be wholly overflowed and covered

by the waves were it not separated from the sea by a strongly-built barrier of stone. The second city at Syracuse is that which is called Achradina, which contains a Forum of very large size, beautiful porticoes, a most highly ornamented Prytaneum, a spacious Curia, and a magnificent temple of Jupiter Olympius; not to speak of the other parts of the city, which are occupied by private buildings, being divided by one broad street through its whole length, and many cross streets. The third city is that which is called Tycha, because it contained a very ancient Temple of Fortune; in this is a very spacious gymnasium, as well as many sacred edifices, and it is the quarter of the town which is the most thickly inhabited. The fourth city is that which, because it was the last built, is named Neapolis: at the top of which is a theatre of vast size; besides this it contains two splendid temples, one of Ceres, the other of Libera, and a statue of Apollo, which is known by the name of Temenites, of great beauty and very large size, which Verres would not have hesitated to carry off if he had been able to remove it."

Cicero here distinctly describes the four quarters of Syracuse, which were commonly compared to four separate cities. In later times, also, we find it alluded to as "the quadruple city." Others, however, enumerated five quarters, as Strabo tells us that it was formerly composed of five cities, probably because the heights of Epipolæ towards

the castle of Euryalus were at one time inhabited, and were reckoned as a fifth town.

1. *Ortygia*, more commonly known simply as "the Island," was the original seat of the colony, and continued throughout the flourishing period of the city to be as it were the citadel or Acropolis of Syracuse, though, unlike most citadels, it lay lower than the rest of the city, its strength as a fortress being derived from its insular position. It is about a mile in length, by less than half a mile in breadth, and of small elevation, though composed wholly of rock, and rising perceptibly in the centre. There is no doubt that it was originally an island, naturally separated from the mainland, though in the time of Thucydides it was united with it: probably, however, this was merely effected by an artificial mole or causeway, for the purpose of facilitating the communication with "the outer city," as that on the mainland was then called. At a later period it was again severed from the land, probably by the elder Dionysius, when he constructed his great docks in the two ports. It was, however, undoubtedly always connected with the mainland by a bridge, or series of bridges, as it is at the present day. The citadel or castle, constructed by Dionysius, stood within the island, but immediately fronting the mainland, and closely adjoining the docks or *navalia* in the Lesser Port. Its front towards the mainland, which appears to have been strongly fortified, was known as the *Pentapyla*; and this

seems to have looked directly upon the Agora or Forum, which we know to have been situated on the mainland.

Ortygia was considered from an early time as consecrated to Artemis or Diana, whence Pindar terms it "the couch of Artemis," and "the sister of Delos." Hence one of the principal edifices in the island was a temple of Diana. Some remains of this are supposed to be still extant in the N.E. corner of the modern city, where two columns, with a portion of their architrave, of the Doric order, are built into the walls of a private house. Much more considerable remains are extant of the temple of Minerva. This was one of the most magnificent in Sicily. Its doors, composed of gold and ivory, and conspicuous for their beautiful workmanship, were celebrated throughout the Grecian world: while the interior was adorned with numerous paintings, among which a series representing one of the battles of Agathocles was especially celebrated. No other ancient remains are now extant in the island of Ortygia; but the celebrated fountain of Arethusa is still visible, as described by Cicero, near the southern extremity of the island, on its western shore.

At the extreme point of the island, and outside the ancient walls, was situated a temple of the Olympian Juno. Of the other edifices in the island the most remarkable were the Hexecontaclinus, built, or at least finished, by Agathocles; the public

granaries, a building of so massive and lofty a construction as to serve the purposes of a fortress, and the palace of King Hieron. No trace now remains of the ancient walls or works on this side of the island, which have been wholly covered and concealed by the modern fortifications. The remains of a tower are, however, visible on a shoal or rock near the N. angle of the modern city, which are probably those of one of the towers built by Agathocles to guard the entrance of the Lesser Harbour, or Portus Laccius.

2. *Achradina*, or "the outer city," as it is termed by Thucydides, was the most important and extensive of the quarters of Syracuse. It consisted of two portions, comprising the eastern part of the great triangular plateau, which extended from the angle of Epipolæ to the sea, as well as the lower and more level space which extends from the foot of this table-land to the Great Harbour, and borders on the marshes of Lysimelea. This level plain, which is immediately opposite to the island of Ortygia, has a rocky soil, of the same limestone with the table-land above, of which it is as it were a lower step. Hence the city, as soon as it extended itself beyond the limits of the island, spread at once over this area; but not content with this, the inhabitants occupied the part of the table-land above it nearest the sea, which is partly separated by a cross valley or depression from the upper part of the plateau, or the heights of Epipolæ. Hence this part of the city

was of considerable natural strength, and seems to have been early fortified by a wall.

Of the buildings noticed by Cicero as still adorning Achradina in his day there are scarcely any vestiges; but the greater part of them were certainly situated in the lower quarter, nearest to the island and the two ports. The Forum or Agora was apparently directly opposite to the Pentapyla or fortified entrance of the island; it was surrounded with porticoes by the elder Dionysius. The Temple of Jupiter Olympius also adjoined the Agora. The Prytaneum, which was most richly adorned, and among its chief ornaments possessed a celebrated statue of Sappho, was probably also situated in the neighbourhood of the Agora; as was certainly the Timoleonteum, or monument erected to the memory of Timoleon. The splendid sepulchral monument which had been erected by the younger Dionysius in memory of his father, but was destroyed after his own expulsion, seems to have stood in front of the Pentapyla, opposite the entrance of the citadel. The only other ruins now visible in this quarter of the city are some remains of Roman baths of little importance. But beneath the surface of the soil there exist extensive catacombs, constituting a complete necropolis. There exist, also, at two points on the slope of the hill of Achradina, extensive quarries hewn in the rocks.

Traces of the ancient walls of Achradina, crowning the low cliffs which bound it towards the sea, may

be found from distance to distance along the whole line extending from the quarries of the *Cappuccini* round to the little bay or cove of *Sta Panagia* at the N.W. angle of the plateau.

3. *Tycha*, so called, as we are told by Cicero, from its containing an ancient and celebrated Temple of Fortune, was situated on the plateau or table-land W. of Achradina, and adjoining the northern face of the cliffs looking towards Megara. *Tycha* probably grew up after the great wall erected by Dionysius along the northern edge of the plateau had completely secured it from attack. Its position is clearly shown by the statement of Livy, that Marcellus, after he had forced the Hexapylum and scaled the heights, established his camp *between* *Tycha* and Neapolis, with the view of carrying on his assaults upon Achradina. It is evident therefore that the two quarters were not contiguous, but that a considerable extent of the table-land W. of Achradina was still unoccupied.

4. *Neapolis*, or the New City, was, as its name implied, the last quarter of Syracuse which was inhabited, though the New Town seems to have eventually grown up into one of the most splendid portions of the city. In the time of Cicero, Neapolis had spread itself over the whole of the southern slope of the table-land, which here forms a kind of second step or underfall, rising considerably above the low grounds beneath, though still separated from the heights of Temenitis by a second line of cliff or

abrupt declivity. The name of Temenitis for the district on the height seems to have been lost, or merged in that of Neapolis, which was gradually applied to the whole of this quarter of the city. But the name was retained by the adjoining gate, which was called the Temenitid Gate, and seems to have been one of the principal entrances to the city.

Of the buildings described by Cicero as existing in Neapolis, the only one still extant is the theatre which he justly extols for its large size. It is not less than 440 feet in diameter, and appears to have had 60 rows of seats, so that it could have accommodated no less than 24,000 persons.

Near the theatre have been discovered the remains of another monument, an altar raised on steps and a platform not less than 640 feet in length by 60 in breadth. A little lower down are the remains of an amphitheatre, a structure which undoubtedly belongs to the Roman colony. No traces have been discovered of the temples of Ceres and Libera or Proserpine on the height above.

Immediately adjoining the theatre are extensive quarries.

5. *Epipolæ* was the name originally given to the upper part of the table-land which slopes gradually from its highest point towards the sea. Its form is that of a tolerably regular triangle, having its vertex at Euryalus, and its base formed by the western wall of Achradina. The name is always used by Thucy-

dides in this sense, as including the whole upper part of the plateau, and was doubtless so employed as long as the space was uninhabited; but as the suburbs of Tycha and Temenitis gradually spread themselves over a considerable part of the heights, the name of Epipolæ came to be applied in a more restricted sense to that portion only which was nearest to the vertex of the triangle. No vestiges of any ancient buildings remain within the walls; but the line of these may be distinctly traced along the top of the cliffs which bound the table-land both towards the N. and the S.; in many places two or three courses of the masonry remain; but the most important ruins are those at the angle or vertex of the triangle, where a spot named *Mongibellisi* is still crowned by the ruins of the ancient castle or fort of *Euryalus*. The ruins in question afford one of the best examples extant of an ancient fortress or castle, designed at once to serve as a species of citadel and to secure the approach to Epipolæ from this quarter.

The main entrance to the city was by a double gate, flanked on both sides by walls and towers, with a smaller postern or sally-port a little to the right of it. The fortress itself was an irregular quadrangle, projecting about 200 yards beyond the approach to the gate, and fortified by strong towers of solid masonry with a deep ditch cut in the rock in front of it, to which a number of subterraneous passages gave access from within. These

passages, communicating with the fort above by narrow openings and stairs, were evidently designed to facilitate the sallies of the besieged without exposing the fortress itself to peril.

THEBÆ

Thebæ (or Thebes) stood on one of the hills of Mt. Teumessus, which divides southern Bœotia into two distinct parts, the northern being the plain of Thebes and the southern the valley of the Asopus. As Bœotia lies between two seas, the founders of Thebes chose a spot in the centre of the country, where water was very plentiful, and where the nature of the ground was admirably adapted for defence. The hill upon which the town stands rises about 150 feet above the plain, and lies about 2 miles northward of the highest part of the ridge. It is bounded on the E. and W. by two small rivers, distant from each other about 6 or 7 stadia, and which run in such deep ravines as to form a natural defence on either side of the city. These rivers, which rise a little S. of the city, and flow northward into the plain of Thebes, are the celebrated streams of Ismenus and Dirce. Between them flows a smaller stream, which divided the city into two parts, the western division containing the Cadmea, and the southern the hill Ismenius and the Ampheon. Both the Ismenus and Dirce, though so celebrated in antiquity, are nothing but torrents, which are only full of water in

the winter after heavy rains. The Ismenus is the eastern and the Dirce the western stream. Though the position of Thebes and of its celebrated streams is certain, almost every point connected with its topography is more or less doubtful. Not a single trace of an ancient building remains; and with the exception of a few scattered remains of architecture and sculpture, and some fragments of the ancient walls, there is nothing but the site to indicate where the ancient city stood.

The city was divided into two parts by the torrent Strophia, of which the western half between the Strophia and the Dirce was the Cadmea, while the eastern half between the Strophia and the Ismenus was the lower city said to have been added by Amphion and Zethus. The Cadmea is again divided by a slight depression near the fountain of Dirce and the Crenæan gate into two hills, of which the larger and the higher one to the S. was the acropolis proper, while the northern hill formed the agora of the acropolis. The eastern half of the city was also divided between the Strophia and the Ismenus into two parts, of which the southern consisted of the hill Ismenius, and the northern of several minor eminences, known under the general name of Amphion. Æschylus describes the tomb of Amphion as standing near the northern gate. Hence Thebes consisted of four parts, two belonging to the acropolis, and two to the lower city, the former being the acropolis proper and the agora of the acropolis,

and the latter being the hill **Ismenius** and the **Ampheon**.

Pausanias, leaving **Potniæ**, entered Thebes on the S. by the Gate **Electræ**, before which he noticed the **Polyandrium**, or tomb of the Thebans who fell fighting against Alexander. Upon entering the city through the Gate **Electræ**, he notices the hill **Ismenius**, sacred to **Apollo**, named from the river **Ismenus** flowing by it. Upon the hill was a temple of **Apollo**, containing several monuments enumerated by Pausanias. Above the **Ismenium**, Pausanias noticed the fountain of the **Ismenus**, sacred to **Ares**, and guarded by a dragon.

Next Pausanias, beginning again from the Gate **Electræ**, turns to the left and enters the **Cadmea**. He does not mention the acropolis by name, but it is evident from the list of the monuments which he gives that he was in the **Cadmea**. He enumerates the house of **Amphitryon**, containing the bed-chamber of **Alcmena**, said to have been the work of **Trophonius** and **Agamedes**; a monument of the children of **Hercules** by **Megara**; the stone called **Sophronister**; the temple of **Hercules**; and, near it, a gymnasium and stadium, both bearing the name of this god; and above the **Sophronister** an altar of **Apollo Spodius**.

Pausanias next came to the depression between the acropolis and the agora of the **Cadmea** where he noticed an altar and statue of **Athena**, bearing the Phœnician surname of **Onga**, or **Onca** according to

other authorities, and said to have been dedicated by Cadmus.

In the agora of the Cadmea the house of Cadmus is said to have stood; and in this place were shown ruins of the bedchamber of Harmonia and Semele; statues of Dionysus, of Pronomus, the celebrated musician, and of Epaminondas; a temple of Ammon; the place where Tiresias observed the flight of birds; a temple of Fortune; three wooden statues of Aphrodite, with the surnames of Urania, Pandemus, and Apostrophia; and a temple of Demeter Thesmophorus.

Crossing the torrent Strophia, Pausanias saw near the Gate Proetides the theatre with the temple of Dionysus. In this part of the city, the following monuments are mentioned by Pausanias: ruins of the house of Lycus and a monument of Semele; monuments of the children of Amphion; a temple of Artemis Euclea, and, near it, statues of Apollo Boedromius and of Hermes Agoræus; the funeral pile of the children of Amphion, distant half a stadium from their tombs; two statues of Athena Zosteria; and the monument of Zethus and Amphion, being a mound of earth.

THERMOPYLÆ (or simply PYLÆ)

That is, the *Hot Gates* or the *Gates*, a celebrated narrow pass, leading from Thessaly into Locris, and the only road by which an enemy can penetrate from northern into southern Greece. It lay between Mt. Ceta and an inaccessible morass, forming the edge of the Maliac gulf. In the time of Herodotus the river Sperchius flowed into the sea in an easterly direction at the town of Anticyra, considerably W. of the pass. Twenty stadia E. of the Sperchius was another river, called Dyras, and again, 20 stadia further, a third river, named Melas, 5 stadia from which was the city Trachis. Between the mountains where Trachis stands and the sea the plain is widest. Still further E. was the Asopus, issuing from a rocky gorge, and E. again is a small stream, named Phoenix, flowing into the Asopus. From the Phoenix to Thermopylæ the distance, Herodotus says, is 15 stadia. Near the united streams of the Phoenix and the Asopus, Mt. Ceta approached so close to the morass of the gulf as to leave space for only a single carriage. In the immediate vicinity of the pass is the town of Anthela, celebrated for the temples of Amphictyon and of the Amphictyonic Demeter, containing seats for the members of the Amphictyonic council, who held here their autumnal meetings. At Anthela

Mt. Œta recedes a little from the sea, leaving a plain a little more than half a mile in breadth, but again contracts near Alpeni, the first town of the Locrians, where the space is again only sufficient for a single carriage. At this pass were some hot springs, which were consecrated to Hercules, and were called by the natives Chytri or the Pans, on account of the cells here prepared for the bathers. Across this pass the Phocians had in ancient times built a wall to defend their country against the attacks of the Thessalians, and had let loose the hot water, so as to render the pass impracticable. It appears from this description that the proper Thermopylæ was the narrow pass near the Locrian town of Alpeni; but the name was also applied in general to the whole passage from the mouth of the Asopus to Alpeni. Taking the term in this acceptation, Thermopylæ consisted of the two narrow openings, with a plain between them rather more than a mile in length and about half a mile in breadth. Herodotus describes the path as beginning at the gorge of the Asopus, passing over the crest of the mountain, and terminating near Alpeni and the rock called Melampygy, and the seats of the Cercopes, where the road is narrowest. The history of the defence of Thermopylæ by Leonidas is too well known to require to be related here. The wall of the Phocians, which Leonidas repaired, was probably built a little eastward of the hot springs. When the Spartan king learnt that Hydarnes was descending in his

rear, he advanced beyond the wall into the widest part of the pass, resolved to sell his life as dearly as possible. Upon the arrival of Hydarnes, the Greeks retired behind the wall, and took up their position upon a hill in the pass, where a stone lion was afterwards erected in honour of Leonidas.

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Caledonius, Saltus	56N	4W	44	Caphereus, Pr. . .	38N	25E	33
Cales (Campania)	41N	14E	19	Capitallum (Roma)	28
Cales (Umbria) . .	43N	13E	23	Capitolias . . .	33N	36E	63
Caletes . . .	50N	1E	46	Capitolium vetus			
Callatii . . .	25N	74E	11	(Roma)	30
Callatis . . .	44N	28E	43	Capitulum . . .	42N	13E	27
Calleva (Sllchester)	51N	1W	45	Capnadocia . . .	38N	36E	10
Callipolis (Calabria)	40N	18E	21	Capraria, Isl.	43N	10E	20
Callipolis (Thracia)	40N	27E	33	Caprasia . . .	40N	16E	24
Calpe (Bithynia) .	41N	30E	56	Capree, Isls. . .	41N	14E	19
Calpe, Mt. . .	36N	5W	50	Capra . . .	34N	9E	53
Calydon . . .	38N	22E	32	Capua . . .	41N	14E	19
Calydum, Isl.				Capytium . . .	38N	15E	25
(Troas)	64	Caraceni . . .	42N	14E	23
Calydunius Sinus	38N	21E	34	Caralis . . .	39N	9E	21
Calymna, Isl. . .	37N	27E	33	Carantonus, R. .	46N	1W	46
Camarina . . .	36N	14E	21	Caravanca, Mt. .	46N	15E	49
Camerinum . . .	43N	13E	20	Carbilo . . .	48N	2W	46
Caminus . . .	32N	20E	52	Carcaseo . . .	43N	3E	47
Campania . . .	41N	14E	21	Carcesium . . .	35N	41E	61
Campi Raudii . .	45N	9E	20	Carchemish . . .	37N	38E	8
Campus Agrippæ				Carcoe . . .	31N	63E	59
(Roma)	28	Cardamyle (Chios)	39N	26E	33
Campus cohortium				Cardamyle (La-			
Prætoriarum				conia) . . .	37N	22E	32
(Roma)	29	Cardia . . .	40N	27E	33
Campus Martius				Carduchi . . .	38N	44E	10
(Roma)	28	Carie . . .	42N	12E	26
Campus Tiberinus				Caria . . .	37N	28E	56
(Roma)	28	Carinæ (Roma)	29
Campus Vaticanus				Carmana . . .	30N	57E	11
(Roma)	28	Carmania . . .	29N	57E	13
Camulodunum (Col-				Carmel . . .	31N	35E	62
chester) . . .	52N	0E	45	Carmel, Mt. . .	33N	35E	60
Camuni . . .	46N	10E	20	Carnos, Isl. . .	39N	21E	34
Cana . . .	33N	35E	63	Carnuntum . . .	48N	17E	49
Canaan . . .	31N	35E	60	Carnutes . . .	48N	2E	46
Canastræum, Pr. .	40N	24E	33	Carpathos, Isl.	36N	27E	56
Canatha . . .	34N	53E	58	Carpotani . . .	40N	4W	50
Candavli, Mts. . .	41N	20E	42	Carpis . . .	38N	10E	53
Candidum, Pr. . .	39N	10E	53	Carriæ . . .	37N	38E	10
Candium . . .	41N	15E	21	Carrodunum . .	46N	17E	42
Canelata . . .	43N	9E	20	Carsooli . . .	42N	13E	20
Caninefates . . .	53N	5E	48	Cartela . . .	36N	5W	50
Cannæ . . .	41N	16E	21	Cartenna . . .	36N	1E	51
Cannarum, Pr. .	35N	4W	52	Carthæa . . .	38N	24E	33
Canopic Mouth				Carthago . . .	38N	10E	53
(Nile) . . .	31N	30E	54	Carthago Nova .	38N	1W	51
Canopus . . .	31N	30E	53	Cartilis . . .	37N	2E	53
Cantabri . . .	43N	4W	46	Caruentum . . .	42N	13E	27
Cantharum, Pr. .	38N	27E	33	Carusa . . .	42N	35E	41
Cantharus Porta				Carusadrus, Mt.	46N	14E	20
(Piræus)	39	Carystus . . .	38N	24E	33
Cantil . . .	51N	0	45	Casillinum . . .	41N	14E	21
Canthum . . .	51N	1E	46	Casmene . . .	38N	15E	21
Canusium . . .	41N	16E	21	Casmonium . . .	45N	9E	22

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Caspisai . . .	34N	75E	11	Centumocelles . . .	42N	12E	20
Caspium Mare . . .	40N	50E	11	Centuripæ . . .	37N	15E	25
Cassiope (Corcyra) . . .	40N	20E	32	Ceos, Isl. . .	38N	24E	33
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manum . . .	43N	14E	23	Cephissus, R. . .	39N	23E	52
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Bâtava . . .	48N	14E	48	Cepi (Athensæ)	38
Castra Crassi . . .	50N	3E	47	Ceramicus Exterior			
Castra Labieni . . .	50N	4E	47	(Athensæ)	38
Castra Planeti . . .	49N	3E	47	Ceramicus Interior			
Castra Prætoria				(Athensæ)	38
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Castra Vetera . . .	52N	6E	47	Cerasus . . .	41N	39E	57
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Castrum Inui . . .	41N	12E	19	Ceraunii, Mts. . .	42N	13E	27
Castrum Minervæ . . .	40N	18E	21	Cercar . . .	33N	13E	52
Castrum Novum . . .	43N	14E	20	Cercina, Isl. . .	35N	11E	53
Castrum Truenti-				Cercinitis, L. . .	41N	24E	33
num . . .	43N	14E	23	Cereatæ . . .	42N	13E	27
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tus . . .	38N	4W	50	Cerfennia . . .	42N	14E	27
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Catabathmus Minor . . .	31N	27E	53	Cermalus (Roma)	30
Catara, Isl. . .	26N	53E	58	Cerne (Libya)	3
Catana . . .	37N	15E	21	Certonium . . .	39N	27E	56
Cataonia . . .	38N	36E	57	Cerva . . .	35N	9E	53
Cataractonium . . .	54N	2W	44	Cestria . . .	40N	20E	32
Cathci . . .	32N	76E	11	Cetius, Mt. . .	48N	16E	49
Cattigara . . .	9S	171E	5	Chæroncia . . .	38N	23E	32
Catuvellauni . . .	52N	0W	45	Chalæstra . . .	41N	23E	32
Caucasus Indicus . . .	36N	73E	59	Chalcedon . . .	41N	29E	56
Cauci . . .	53N	6W	45	Chalcidice . . .	40N	23E	32
Caulonia . . .	38N	16E	21	Chalcis . . .	36N	37E	57
Cayster, R. . .	38N	28E	56	Chalcis (Eubœa) . . .	38N	24E	33
Caystri Pedion . . .	39N	31E	56	Chalcis (Tynphaca) . . .	40N	21E	34
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Cedron Br. . .	32N	35E	62	Chamavi . . .	53N	7E	48
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Celensæ . . .	38N	30E	56	Charadriæ . . .	40N	24E	33
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Celenderis . . .	36N	33E	41	Charaora . . .	29N	57E	58
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Cenchreæ (Troas)	64	Chauci . . .	54N	8E	48
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Chimæra, Mt. .	36N	30E	56	Claros .	38N	28E	18
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Cholbisina .	37N	70E	59	Clitum, R. .	43N	13E	20
Chorasmla .	40N	53E	11	Clota, R. .	56N	5W	44
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Chryse .	5N	100E	7	Clusium .	43N	12E	19
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Cibalce .	45N	19E	42	Cocosates .	44N	1W	46
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Circealum .	35N	41E	15	Collis Quirinalis (Roma)	29
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Corfinium . . .	42N	14E	20	Cume . . .	39N	27E	33
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				Dibon . . .	31N	36E	62
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Deir Makarius . . .	30N	30E	54	(Roma)	28
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Delingat . . .	31N	30E	54	rum (Roma)	29
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Porta Nævia (Roma)	29	Portus Herculis Monæci	44N	8E	20
Porta Navalis (Roma)	28	Portus Lemani (Hythe)	51N	1E	45
Porta Nomentana (Roma)	29	Portus Magnus	36N	0W	52
Porta Ostiensis (Roma)	28	Portus Pisanus	44N	10E	20
Porta Pinciana (Roma)	28	Portus Veneris (Gallia)	42N	3E	47
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Porta Pompeium (Athenæ)	38	Portus Victoria	43N	4W	50
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Porta Salaria (Roma)	29	Potentia (Lucania)	41N	16E	21
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